

LANDS OF THE COMMONWEALTH



COLOMBO, CEYLON: THE KELANIYA TEMPLE
NEAR THE TOWN

Photo Exclusive News Agency

LANDS
OF THE
COMMONWEALTH

by

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AUTHORS OF

“OTHER PEOPLE’S HOUSES” “WHAT THE WORLD WEARS”
“TOYMAKING IN SCHOOL AND HOME” ETC.

With many illustrations and maps



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PREFACE

YOUNG people hearing the words 'British Empire' are inclined to think that they refer to a great empire built up by conquest as the Roman Empire was. But by far the greater number of men who made the Commonwealth we know to-day were men who left their cottage homes in the British Isles with their packs on their backs to seek their fortune overseas. These were the men who moulded the great independent countries of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Farmers from the British Isles cleared the forests and ploughed the wastes in these lands. When the tin-mines failed in Cornwall the miners, true to their craft, went overseas. So there were Cornish settlements wherever mines were dug in Australia, Africa, and New Zealand. The Highlanders who could make but a scanty living in their Highland homes went overseas and formed scattered settlements. To-day there are more Gaelic people in Nova Scotia than in the Highlands of Scotland. Peaceful Britons and British commerce were responsible for the growth of great cities in the East—Bombay, Calcutta, Singapore, and Hong Kong—all of which were 'cities of refuge.' All were neglected spots until British rule was established and neighbouring people flocked there for the sake of peace and justice.

We have tended to stress not so much the independent states that make up the Commonwealth—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Pakistan, India, Southern Rhodesia, and Ceylon—but rather the *Colonies* that are still learning how to rule themselves. Few

realize the fascinating histories of these Colonies, ranging in size from Nigeria, whose people number over 20,000,000, to small islands such as the Falklands with little over 2000 people. There are fifty to fifty-five of these classified as Crown Colonies, Protected States, Protectorates, or Mandates. Few perhaps appreciate the work that Britain is doing—the development of the peoples of these Colonies to a stage where they can manage their own affairs, and the development of the idea of a world-wide family of self-governing nations. Fewer still perhaps realize their share in this work. The Secretary of State for the Colonies is responsible to Parliament for the development and welfare of the Colonies, and we through Parliament and the Members we send to Parliament have a duty to see that the work goes steadily forward. We are to blame if things go wrong. Only a glimpse of the Commonwealth is possible in this short book, but it may help readers to realize the vast scope and the human interest of the thrilling story of its gradual development. No doubt it has come into being through some historic events which cannot perhaps be defended in this period of higher standards of international conduct, but “through all its affairs blows the keen and cleansing air of democracy, based on freedom of speech, of the Press, of faith, and of association. These elementary rights of the peoples of the British Commonwealth—whatever their race, religion, and colour—are protected by the *rule of law.*”

R. K. P.
M. I. R. P.

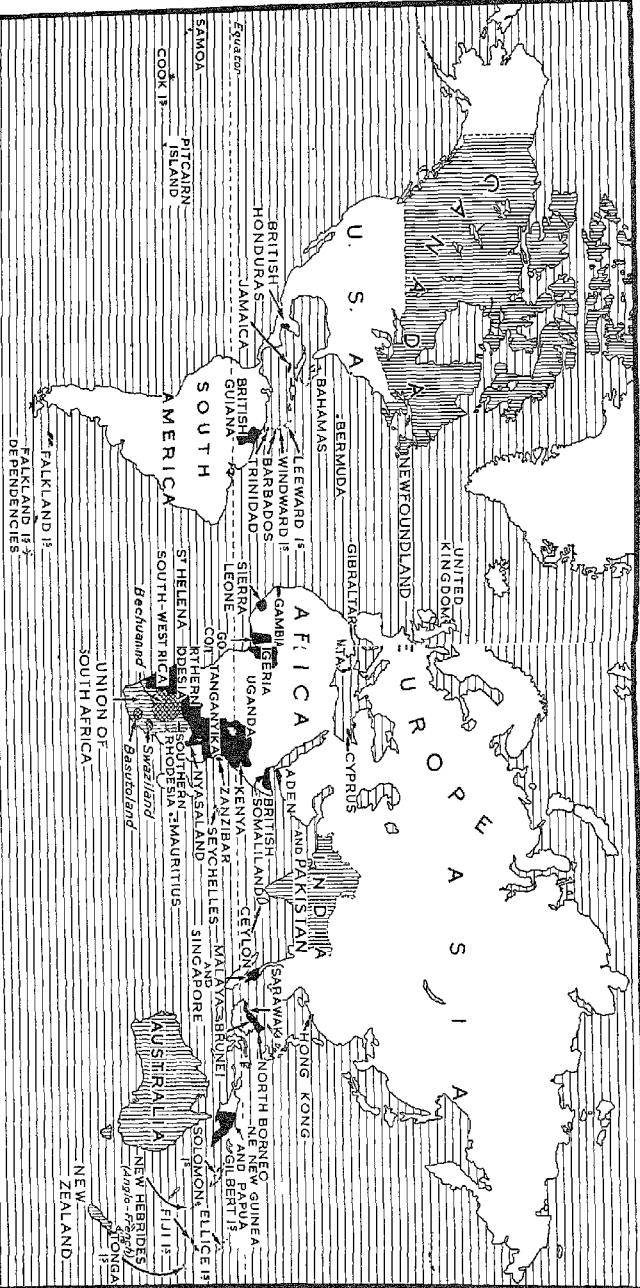
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*Dominions and Self-governing
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CHAPTER I

BRITISH WEST AFRICA

HAVE you ever thought that when you eat your breakfast, dinner, or tea, when you dress yourself, you are sure to be touching something that has come from some far-away part of the British Empire, or British Commonwealth of Nations? The Commonwealth is so vast, and includes so many different countries and different peoples, that it is difficult to say exactly where it begins or ends. When you have read this book you will know a great deal more about it, and how it is linked together.

Now, which part of this great union of nations do you think you are touching when you cut yourself a piece of margarine? Your margarine will take you in fancy to British West Africa.

If you look at the map on page 15 you will see that British West Africa is not one country, but four—Gambia, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, and Nigeria, reading from left to right on the map. It is said that only two things are true of all the 29,000,000 people who live in these four countries: first, their skins are dark, and, second, the King of England is their 'Father.' For the rest, there are some forty 'chief tribes' and as many languages, and so many smaller tribes, each with its own dialect, that they cannot be counted. In the days not so long ago each tribe warred on and off with its neighbours, and slave-raiding was a favourite occupation.

The biggest of these four countries — Nigeria — is able to send us much of the fat we so badly need to make margarine and nut-butter; it also sends us leather. Nigeria is nearly four times as big as the United Kingdom — England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Look at a map of Nigeria. Right across it from west to east runs a great water-line formed by two rivers; the river Niger, which gives its name to Nigeria, comes in from the west, and as it turns south it is joined by the river Benue, coming from the east to meet it. We will first visit the country to the north of this water-line — Northern Nigeria.

NORTHERN NIGERIA

This northern part is the highest part of Nigeria. It is not nearly so rainy or so full of trees as the southern part. It is a land of grassy plains, with great trees standing here and there, so this country is sometimes spoken of as 'parkland.' It is pleasing in a quiet way. Herds of many white and brown cattle graze there; there are sturdy goats and flap-eared sheep. The villages have houses neatly thatched with grass. In the distance loom ranges of hills, rugged and grand, and nearer at hand are granite peaks jutting out of the green land. Farther north still the country sinks gradually towards the Sahara Desert. It is still grassy, but there are fewer trees, and the thorny bushes of the desert begin to appear.

Across these grasslands wander herdsmen, the good-looking Fulani people, often called the "cattle Fulani." They are a fine race, with straight hair and copper-coloured skins. They have travelled these northern grasslands since Bible days, and are still moving to-day with their splendid humped cattle. You can see the



AFRICA AND EUROPE

humped cattle, with their wide-spreading horns in the picture opposite. Their hides and skins make very good leather. The shoes you wear, and the gloves, bags, and other articles made of leather you see in shop-windows, should remind you of far-away Nigeria.

But it is a farmer in Northern Nigeria whom we must visit if we want to learn about the first home of our margarine.

Ali's Farm in Northern Nigeria. Ali lives with his family in a village in Northern Nigeria not far from the old town of Kano. His house is a collection of small huts (one for each grown-up person) in a kind of courtyard enclosed by a mud wall or fence of matting. There is only one entrance, which is through a hut where Ali sometimes sits and talks to callers. The huts are built of clay and thatched with reeds or grass. The stalks of the millet are useful for fences. Ali's wife, Anna, does most of the cooking out of doors in the yard, or in a hut if it is wet.

The huts were built by Ali and his family, with some help from their friends. In other villages and in other parts of West Africa you will find houses different from Ali's house, but, whatever the material used or the shape, native houses cost very little to build—perhaps a few shillings if a man needs more help than his family and friends can give him. In large towns, of course, houses vary more, and there are professional builders.

Much of the furniture is home-made, and so are many other things that are needed every day—a bed of hard mud and wood, mats for the bed or for seats, stools, cooking-pots and dishes, baskets, and a mortar and pestle for pounding grain, ground-nuts, fruits, and vegetables. There are tools such as axes and hoes,

and perhaps a bow and quiver of arrows hanging on the wall, and a spear stuck into the thatch. There are not many wild animals round Ali's village—an occasional leopard perhaps—and although there are many snakes in West Africa they are not often seen.



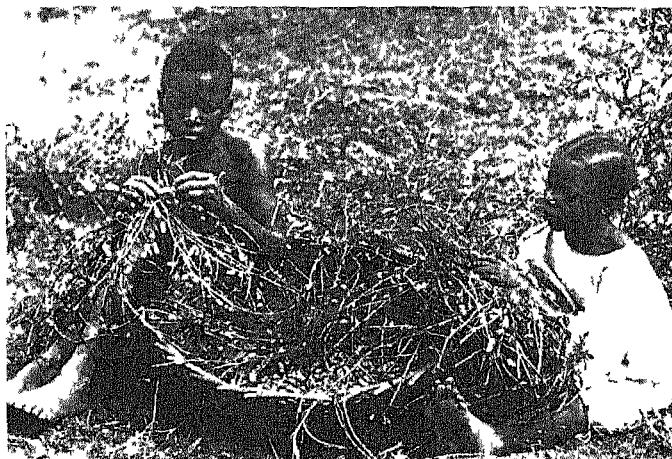
CATTLE AT KANO, NIGERIA

Awaiting transport in the weekly fast cattle-train to Lagos.

Photo Exclusive News Agency

Ali has a big family, but they are all very busy, because there is much to be done on the farm. He grows crops that he can sell and crops to feed his family. To get money he grows ground-nuts—monkey-nuts as we call them, or peanuts as the Americans call them. They are not really nuts at all. The plant belongs to the pea family. It trails along the ground, and the pods gradually bend earthward, until they bury them-

selves in two or three inches of soil, where they ripen. The pods look like nuts because they have yellow shells containing two or three brown-skinned kernels. The picture on this page shows the ground-nut plant. The flowers are yellow and pea-shaped.



A BOY AND GIRL PICKING GROUND-NUTS AT
ABULENLA, NIGERIA

Photo Exclusive News Agency

Ali has a great field of ground-nuts, where he and his family work hard. There are no seasons in Nigeria like ours. It is warm and sunny all the year round, but there is a rainy season and a dry season—that is, some months when there are sure to be rainy days and some months when rain rarely falls.

The crop is sown just before the rainy season. Ridges are made in the fields, and the nuts are planted singly by hand and trodden in by the feet. While the plants are growing Ali and his helpers carefully hoe between the rows.

When the dry season comes harvesting begins. This means much work. The plants are lifted out of the ground with short-handled hoes, and the nuts picked off by hand. The family have then to shell them to make them lighter, because they have a long way to



SHELLING GROUND-NUTS, NORTHERN NIGERIA

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London

travel. The shells are removed by being pounded with a pestle in a mortar. The kernels are packed in bags. You will read later how Ali takes them to Kano, where they are sent by rail to the ports of Lagos and Port Harcourt for shipment to Great Britain and Europe. The nuts are of great value because of the oil which is obtained when they are crushed in oil-mills. This oil is used for salad-oil and in the manufacture of margarine and soap. The substance, or 'cake,' that is left when all the oil is pressed out makes good food for cattle.

Ground-nuts, as you will see, are one of the links between Britain and Nigeria.

Although every one in Ali's village likes ground-nuts, they do not grow many for themselves, as they want to sell all they can. For food for his family Ali grows guinea corn (a kind of millet), millet, and vegetables. Millet belongs to the corn family, but it has smaller grains than wheat. It is eaten at every meal, and is as important to Ali's family as our bread is to us. Anna, Ali's wife, generally boils it so that it forms a kind of porridge, which is eaten with soups, vegetable sauces, and stewed meat. She often mixes milk with the porridge for the younger children. Ali grows plenty of vegetables, and his wife is very clever at making tasty dishes. They generally have two good meals a day; one of these is the evening meal.

Besides working in the fields Ali and his family have animals to look after—the donkeys that carry their ground-nuts to market and the goats that give them milk. In the dry season, when the harvest of millet and ground-nuts has been collected, the goats are allowed to roam about near the village and pick up their own food, but during the rainy season, when the crops are growing, they are tethered in the open or kept in huts and fed. Some of the farmers have sheep and cattle, but most of the sheep and cattle are kept by wandering herdsmen who have no settled villages, but build huts for themselves wherever they stop for a time to pasture their flocks and herds.

There are no shops in Ali's village, and only one road runs through it, though there are many tracks leading to the ground-nut fields around. In the middle of the village, where all the tracks meet, is a grassy open space where sheep graze, and goats

scramble about on the gnarled roots of an old tree that gives welcome shade. Here the little ones play, and in the evenings the elders sit and gossip.

The children have not much time to play, as they are busy in the 'house' and on the farm. They help



A FIELD OF GUINEA CORN, A KIND OF MILLET

Photo Exclusive News Agency

to look after the goats, gather vegetables, fetch water, clear away the bowls and dishes used at meal-times, and do many useful jobs, as most children do. Their favourite game is perhaps playing with mud or clay, for the mud of Nigeria is excellent for modelling. Kuaka, one of Ali's younger sons, can model beautiful pots. He also models animals he knows—leopards,

monkeys, cattle, snakes, goats, antelopes, lizards. His baby brother and sister like his toys. Kuaka and his friends also play with the stalks of the guinea corn, from which they model cars, lorries, and aeroplanes, for there is an airway from Lagos to Kano. You can read more about the amusements and work of the children later in this chapter.

Off to the Market at Kano. One day Ali's family woke up in great excitement. They were going to the market of Kano, the biggest market in Africa.

There are many markets held in Africa. Almost every village has a market-day. All Africans — men, women, and children — love to go to market, so that the markets are happy, busy, crowded, noisy places. Neighbouring villages hold their markets on different days of the week, so that they do not interfere with each other and all can attend. Most of Ali's children had been to village markets, but Kuaka had never been to Kano.

The ground-nuts have been harvested and packed in long, narrow sacks. These are now tied crosswise on the backs of donkeys.

At last they are off, the donkeys kicking up a cloud of dust as they trot along the road. There are many donkeys carrying sacks of ground-nuts to Kano; sometimes groups of twenty or thirty can be seen. Camels are also used in Nigeria to carry the sacks of nuts to buying centres. The camels are in charge of Tuaregs who are partly veiled (see opposite). Many camels, indeed, are seen on the roads to Kano, because buyers often come long distances to make their purchases, and Northern Nigeria is on the edge of the Sahara Desert. There is the fully veiled Tuareg from the desert in camel caravan, who comes to buy blue cloth for his

veil, as well as camel caravans bringing salt from the desert, for there is no salt near Kano.

Along the roads, too, come the wandering herdsmen, the Fulani, with their flocks and herds and loads of hides and skins. Then there are Africans on foot



TRANSPORTING GROUND-NUTS, NORTHERN NIGERIA

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London

with head loads, and others with laden oxen. On some of the roads motor-cars and lorries are to be seen.

At last the mud walls and domes of Kano appear. Some of the narrow gateways have been widened to take motor traffic, and here car and lorry halt at traffic signals, as do the strings of camels or donkeys that follow.

While Ali and his sons are busy unloading the donkeys and tethering them we can take a quick look round the market.

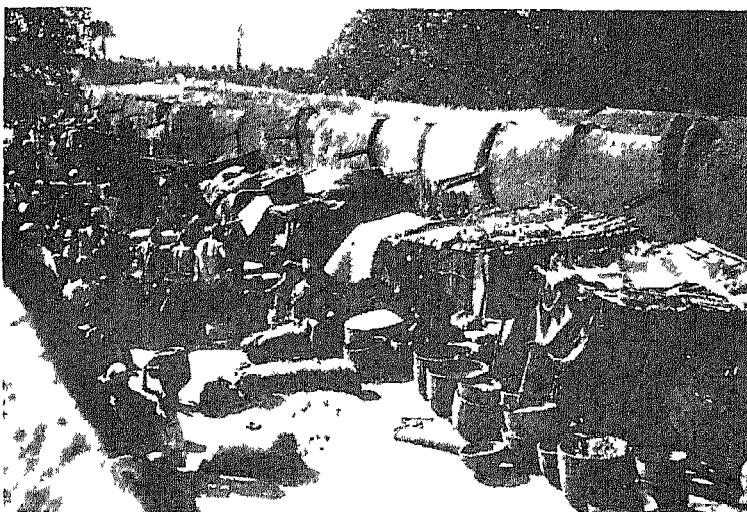
It is a very different market from ours, for all the

goods are spread out on the ground where the traders sit. Some stalls have awnings to keep off the hot sun, as in the picture opposite. There are no carts, or even wheelbarrows, as the Africans carry their goods on their heads or on the backs of donkeys, oxen, and camels. It is such a big market that we cannot see all of it in a day. The cattle market is perhaps the largest part. Then there is a great show of earthenware jars. The clay used for making these jars is the same as that used for building the houses in Kano. There are also some shops in the market built of clay; these often have shelters built out in front which are roofed with the stalks of the guinea corn. But all the goods are still on the ground. In one booth there is flour made from guinea corn, and baskets and sacks of ground-nuts all over the place. The corn-dealers are all in one spot; so are the Fulani women, with their great bowls of milk. The butchers are together too, the furniture men and carpenters, the potters, the mattress-makers, the mat-sellers. There is a corner for firewood and for enamel ware.

Then there is the cloth market. Some of the cloth is made from cotton grown near Kano, where it is also dyed. The indigo pits where the dyeing is done are a feature of the place. Everywhere we can see people wearing blue garments made and dyed locally. But a great quantity of gaily coloured cotton cloth also comes from Britain, and is paid for with the money obtained for the ground-nuts and leather.

There are lines of tailors in the market, and sewing-machines hum. Draped round their booths are the products of the sewing-machines—caps, shirts, cloaks, etc. The stalls of the leather-workers are also gay with brilliant colours.

The salt market looks less interesting, but it is very important, because we all need salt to keep us healthy, and the Africans use a considerable amount. Although caravans bring salt from the desert, a good deal comes over the sea to the ports of Nigeria from the United Kingdom and Spain.



THE MARKET, KANO, NORTHERN NIGERIA

Photo Exclusive News Agency

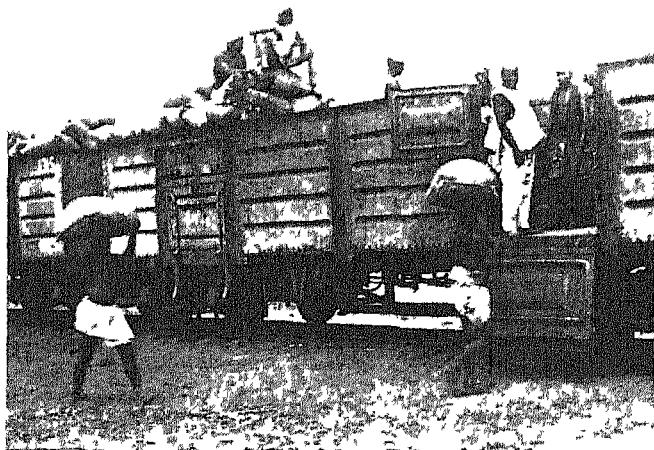
There are vegetables of all sorts from villages round—yams, beans, sweet potatoes, onions, and many others that we in Britain do not know. There are kola-nuts from the great forests in the south. These nuts are somewhat larger than walnuts, and grow in pods that hold five or six. They are a good food, because they satisfy both hunger and thirst.

In one corner of the market are stalls and booths where a great variety of things is sold. Here are the

less important merchants. On the edge of the market lie some circles of ash in which burn bright fires. Around these fires pieces of meat on skewers are grilling. The skewers are stuck in the ash, and form a 'fence' round each fire. Here hungry folk come to eat, for the smell of grilling meat is most appetizing. Other foods, strange to us, can be bought at the market, such as cakes of guinea corn and ground-nuts fried in oil.

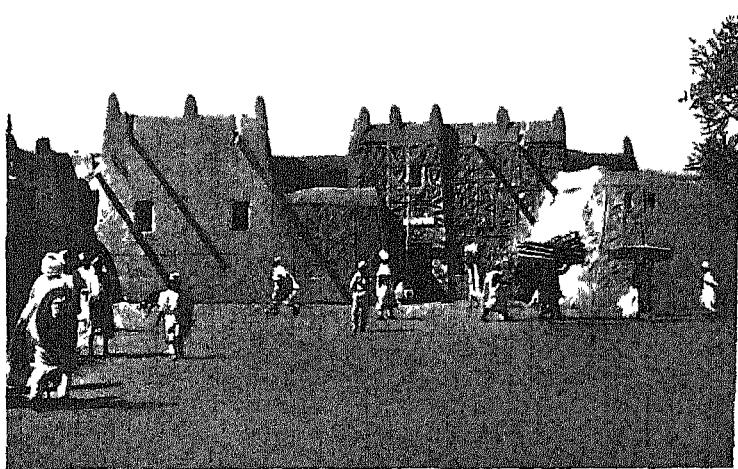
Now what do Ali and his family buy after they have sold their ground-nuts? Anna, Ali's wife, buys some gaily printed cotton. Then a good stock of salt is needed. Salt is always bought in the dry season, because during the rainy season it picks up dampness from the air and becomes much heavier. It is therefore much easier to carry in the dry season. The donkeys that bring ground-nuts into Kano take salt back again. (Ground-nuts, you remember, are harvested in the dry season.) The most expensive thing that Ali buys is firewood! There are so few trees around Kano that wood is difficult to obtain. It may have to be brought a long way, and that makes it expensive. They all buy food of some kind—both to eat and to bring back with them. They take home kola-nuts, and Anna buys vegetables, including yams, that do not grow on her farm.

Now that the British have brought motor-cars and lorries to Northern Nigeria, and a railway that carries people and goods to and from the sea—that is, the port of Lagos—the farmers and herdsmen are able to sell more of their products—ground-nuts, hides, and skins—and so buy many of the 'luxuries' that make life easier—sewing-machines, bicycles, kerosene and lamps for lighting, mattresses, cigarettes, hardware, tinned



LOADING GROUND-NUTS ON TO RAILWAY TRUCKS,
NORTHERN NIGERIA

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London



A STREET SCENE IN KANO, NORTHERN NIGERIA

Most of the buildings and all the walls of the city, eleven miles in circumference, are of baked mud. The gates are of cowhide, set in a massive entrance. On the outskirts lies the British colony.

Photo Exclusive News Agency

goods, but especially cotton material. It is said that 250,000,000 square yards are imported annually!

What Kuaka saw in Kano. When most of the selling and buying has been done Ali lets Kuaka and his eldest brother wander about the town of Kano.

Kano is the centre of the province of Kano, a province about one and a half times as big as Wales. It is ruled by an emir, helped by the British. There are twelve or thirteen provinces in Northern Nigeria ruled by emirs or sultans. Not so long ago, before the British came, Northern Nigeria was cut off from the world by the desert to the north and the tropical forests to the south, and troubled by robbery and violence. The emirs used at the beginning of each dry season to sally forth at the head



THE EMIR OF KANO, NORTHERN NIGERIA

Ruling over two million Hausas, he is reputed to be Africa's wealthiest chieftain.

Photo Exclusive News Agency

of their armed horsemen on slave-raiding forays. The Negroes working on their farms never felt safe. Then the emirs often fought fiercely among themselves.

When the British came they stopped the slave trade, and the emirs had to promise to rule justly and peacefully. Once there was a thick wall and a ditch all round the town, but since the British came, bringing peace-

ful days, the walls have not been needed. Parts have fallen down, and the ditch has been filled up.

Kuaka is very much interested in the buildings—Government Building, the biggest there, the houses of rich people, the Court House, the Emir's Palace, and the Mosque, for there are many Mohammedans in Northern Nigeria—Arabs or of Arab ancestry. The emirs are descendants of the Arabs who once made slaves of the Negroes. Kuaka watches to see the Emir come out in his robes, and the judges with their scribes from the Court House. He much admires the patterns drawn on the walls of the buildings. At the railway station he sees the train that carries their ground-nuts to Lagos, where they are shipped to the United Kingdom and other places.

Many improvements have been made and are being made in Kano; there are schools and colleges and a hospital.

SOUTHERN NIGERIA

In Southern Nigeria we feel we are in Story-book Land. Midway along the coast lies the vast Niger Delta, with a network of waterways, where houses are often built on stilts because there is so little dry land. The land around is thick with the dark, mysterious mangroves. These ugly trees are useful in many ways. Good timber is obtained from their trunks for building landing-places for boats and wharfs for big steamers, and when their branches are burnt salt can be obtained from the ashes. Salt, as we know, is scarce in Nigeria.

North of the Delta lands are the forests, the real tropical forests that every one likes to read about. The trees soar high in the air, thousands of creepers dangling from their tops. The ground beneath is hidden in a tangle of undergrowth so dense that one

cannot leave the narrow tracks through the forest until one comes to the clearings where the villages and farms are.

Very interesting trees grow in the forests; some give fine timber for building, and some lovely woods for making furniture. Then there are the valuable oil-palms, the kola-nut trees and other food-bearing trees, as well as the wild rubber-tree.

In a clearing in the forest lives a farmer called Mensa. He lives in the sort of village you see in the picture opposite. His house is made of mud and wood, and it is roofed with mats of palm-leaves. The roof overhangs to protect the walls from rain, for in Southern Nigeria there is rain and hot sunshine all the year round, so that plants never stop growing.

Mensa's house is oblong in shape, with doors and shuttered windows. It has three or four small rooms, with a common doorway into the lane. The rooms are used chiefly as bedrooms. The back door opens into a kind of yard with a kitchen, outhouses, and a few papaw-trees. These are small trees that bear fruit all the year round. Mensa's family eat the fruit raw or boiled.

Little furniture is needed. There are mats made of plaited palm-leaves, cooking-pots, tubs and mortars hollowed out of tree-trunks, wooden pestles, etc. Not so long ago the people dressed in the products of the forest and wore girdles of bark cloth, but to-day most of the villagers can buy cotton cloth from the traders who come to their markets.

There are many houses in the villages, all oblong in shape and built close together. They stretch in a long, straggling line facing each other. Some houses (see the house on the right in picture at page 31) have

roofs which cover a veranda, where people can work in bad weather, and where firewood is stored out of the rain. There is, of course, plenty of wood in the forest.

There is no proper road through the village—only narrow tracks branching out in different directions.



A VILLAGE IN SOUTHERN NIGERIA

Photo Professor Darryll Forde

They lead through the forest to the clearings where the villagers grow their crops. On either side of the paths, as you can see in the picture at page 32, and all about the village, except in the clearings, there are dense forests, where even the hot, bright light of the tropical sun cannot penetrate. The paths are worn quite deep by the daily tramp of the villagers passing to and from their 'farm' lands. They carry home

the products of their 'farms' in tubs hollowed out of tree-trunks. These tubs they carry on their heads.

The villagers grow their own food, men, women, and children all helping. They have few tools except a short hoe and an axe, which they use skilfully. The



SOUTHERN NIGERIA: FOREST PATH

Photo Professor Darryll Forde

hoe is for loosening the soil, and the axe for cutting away the undergrowth and branches of trees.

Each month brings its different work—clearing bush and cutting trees, burning the cut branches and roots to make ash for the fields, hoeing the ground, sowing the crops, weeding and fencing them, and harvesting. Journeys from home are taken only when the fields may be safely left; hunting and dancing are fitted in when possible among the many duties on the farms.

Mensa's most important food crop is the yam. It looks something like a huge potato, and sends out new shoots from 'eyes' just as the potato does. From these yams flour is made. In the picture at page 34 you can see Mensa's wife, Koko, planting yams. She is loosening the soil with her iron hoe and making the 'hills' in which the yams are planted. By scraping up the soil into a heap she gets it deep enough to grow yams. She puts a bit of a yam with an 'eye' in it in the centre of each 'hill.' In the picture you can see the 'hills' where the yams are planted and the uncleared forest behind. Although yams are the chief food of Mensa's village, as bread is our chief food, other crops are grown: cassava (manioc), a little maize, as well as side-crops such as bananas, pumpkins, cucumbers, peas, beans, wild spinach, peppers, etc. Koko is very keen on growing vegetables, because from them she makes some tasty relish into which the mush, or porridge, can be dipped, for the main dish is always a thick mush made from yams or cassava. The roots of the cassava are like big parsnips. They are ground by hand between stones or pounded in a mortar. The tapioca we eat is made from the cassava root.

In the African forests there are a number of plants, roots, mushrooms, and fruits that can be eaten. They too help to make the mush more tasty, and parties of women go into the bush to gather them at the right times.

Very rarely has Koko any meat or milk, for cattle cannot be kept in the forest, partly because there is no grass, but mainly because of the tsetse-fly, which would bite and kill them.



A YAM

In some villages less troubled by this fly a few goats are kept, because they can live on leaves and twigs. Sometimes pigs are kept as well.

The people of Mensa's village would have no fat



PLANTING YAMS, SOUTHERN NIGERIA

Photo Professor Daryl Forde

if it were not for the wild oil-palm, their most valuable tree. The fruits of this palm grow in dense clusters forming heart-shaped bunches or heads.

Each small fruit is orange-red in colour, and has a fleshy outer coat which encloses a hard-shelled nut containing a kernel.

While Koko and the younger children are working on the farm Mensa and his eldest son, Semanu, often go to the forest to gather the fruit of the oil-palm. The picture on this page shows Mensa climbing a palm with the help of a belt passed round his body and the trunk of the tree. He cuts through the stalk with his knife, letting the head of fruit fall to the ground. A head of fruit consists of about twelve hundred separate little fruits. Mensa and his son generally carry home two or three heads or bunches of fruit. They cut up the heads so that they can get off the little fruits (see picture at page 36). These are piled in a heap or heaps and left for a few days.

Next the fruits are put in a mortar and pounded with a pestle, to separate the oily pulp from the nuts. In the picture (page 36) you can see Mensa hard at work doing this.

Koko and the other women then boil the mass of pounded pulp and nuts, and skim off the bright reddish or orange-coloured oil that rises to the surface. It has a pleasant smell, like the scent of violets. This oil is called palm-oil, and Koko and the other women use it for cooking and for making palm-oil soup.



SOUTHERN NIGERIA:
GATHERING THE FRUIT OF
THE OIL-PALM

Photo Professor Darryll Forde



SOUTHERN NIGERIA: CUTTING UP HEADS OF PALM FRUITS
By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London



SOUTHERN NIGERIA: POUNDING THE FRUIT OF THE OIL-PALM
Photo Dorien Leigh, Ltd

The oil-palm provides Mensa and his family not only with food, but with money, because he can sell the kernels of the nuts to traders. They are of great value, containing a very pure oil that can be used for making margarine. The United Kingdom and the



SOUTHERN NIGERIA: BOILING THE FRUIT OF THE
OIL-PALM AND SKIMMING THE OIL

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London

rest of Europe buy great quantities of these kernels. The countries that buy them have special factories for crushing them; there is a factory, for example, at Selby, in Yorkshire.

When Koko has skimmed off all the palm-oil the nuts are separated from the pulp, washed, and dried. The women and children then set to work to crack the nuts and get out the kernels. They crack them between two stones, as in the picture at page 39. The kernels are then tied up in bags ready to be sold.

How do Mensa's oil kernels reach Britain?

Not far from his village the Government has built a road, with trading-stations here and there along it. Mensa and his sons carry their bags of kernels along the forest tract that leads to this road, then along the road to the nearest trading-station. The traders who buy them send them by lorry to Lagos, whence they are shipped to Britain.

The traders are paid by the people of Britain, and with some of the money they buy goods from Britain to sell to the villagers—gaily coloured cottons from Lancashire, knives from Sheffield, pots and pans and metal goods from Birmingham, and other useful things.

Some years ago there were no roads near Mensa's village, and he was cut off from all chance of learning. Thanks to the roads, the oil kernels make a link between the little, out-of-the-way village in the African forest and the people of Britain.

In some villages nearer the coast the people plant oil-palms, and sell not only the kernels, but the palm-oil from the pulp. The oil is put into barrels. *Palm-oil* is not so good as *palm-kernel oil*, but it is very useful to the British for making soap and candles and for many other purposes.

Mensa's Wife goes marketing. Koko goes marketing very happily when Mensa gives her some of the money he gets for his oil kernels. Their village market is only a small one held outside the village in a clearing among the trees. The stalls or awnings are put up by the sellers each time they come, and they look as if a puff of wind would blow them away. At one stall there is a trader with goods from Britain, at another a trader selling dried fish that he has bought

from women on the coast. Farmers from villages around have also brought their products—vegetables, peppers, flour, cooked food of different kinds, fruits, goat's milk, a few pigs, and so on. Perhaps the strangest stalls are those of the medicine-men, who



SOUTHERN NIGERIA: CRACKING PALM-NUTS

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London

sell herbs to cure all ills and strange remedies and charms that were known long ago to the witch-doctors of the jungle; for in many villages the Africans use charms as a protection from every kind of misfortune. The charm may be the bone of an animal, a bird's beak, the claw of a lion, a bundle of feathers, or the skin of a chameleon.

It is hot and dusty in the market, and there are many flies. But every one is too busy talking and bargaining to notice. No scales are used. Pepper and flour are sold by the tinfoil. A cigarette tin is sometimes the measure. Food is wrapped in large

leaves. The women carry their products to market in wooden tubs on their heads. They return with them full of the things they have bought. Their coins have holes in them, and are threaded on string. This is a very convenient way of carrying them in a country where few clothes are worn and pockets are rare.

Koko loves market-day, because she meets and gossips with so many friends. The market is a good place for the exchange of news. The children too love market-days, because their mother always brings them home something good to eat or buys them something—perhaps a tin bangle for Akla, her eldest daughter, or a new dress for Arna. The 'new dress' is a brightly coloured piece of cotton about two yards long. Arna cleverly wraps it round her body to form a kind of skirt. Most of the village folk wear a skirt like this, so that the arms and shoulders are left bare. The men's clothes are not so brightly coloured.

Sometimes the family go to a larger market some distance off, but they can do this only when there is little work to be done on the farm.

Although they have no amusements of the kind we have, they live, on the whole, happy, contented lives. Later in the book you will read more about their pleasures and the stories they like to hear and tell. It must be remembered that they are not only farmers, but house-builders, weavers, clever potters, carpenters. They are, moreover, not completely shut off by the forest, because, as we have seen, every village is joined by tracks to every other village. Some of these tracks are scarcely visible to the untrained eye, but others are trade routes, and some in the north are international caravan routes. The paths or tracks are made solely by men's feet, except that sometimes a bit of a tree

is cut away or a hole filled up. Over certain streams are very rough bridges—just boughs cut from the bush and thrown across. Over the largest rivers are simple ferries, consisting of canoes or large dugouts, or in some cases giant gourds, in which goods also are floated across. As the great bulk of travelling is done on foot, and goods are mainly carried on men's heads, these tracks serve, but if village life is to be improved good roads are needed. The Government has begun to build roads and railways, and with these schools and hospitals and other things badly needed may come to Mensa's village. Making roads, railways, and harbours costs money, but without them Africa cannot make progress; progress can only be made through trade, and without open roads and rivers, free and safe harbours, trade is impossible.

The new roads being built, the railways, the harbours of Lagos and Port Harcourt, are in a sense Britain's gift to Nigeria. We must remember, when we buy margarine made of ground-nuts or palm-oil that comes from Africa, that we are helping the Africans.

THE GOLD COAST

Now we are going to visit the Gold Coast, the land of the cocoa-farmer. The African cocoa-farmers of the Gold Coast are intimately connected with us through great firms like Cadbury's and Lyons's, who buy cocoa-beans from these far-away farmers and change them into the cocoa we drink and the chocolate we eat.

Britain took over the management of the Gold Coast, as she did other parts of Africa, to put down slavery. This task was very difficult at first, because the part of it called Ashanti was ruled by a cruel king or chieftain who attacked the coast tribes under British

protection. At last, however, Ashanti was made peaceful, and the country, once the home of fierce fighters, is now the home of prosperous cocoa-farmers.

Just as Nigeria is a group of territories or provinces, so does the Gold Coast cover the Gold Coast Colony, Ashanti, and the Northern Territories. Gold and diamonds are now mined there and exported, and other minerals.

All the cocoa-farmers are Africans, and own their own farms, which they manage well. We can learn a great deal about them and the cocoa-beans they send us if we visit Cadbury's works at Bournville, near Birmingham.

In the picture opposite we can see Africans on a farm extracting the beans from the pods. The pods are cut open with a knife, and women and children scrape out the beans, which are covered with pulp.

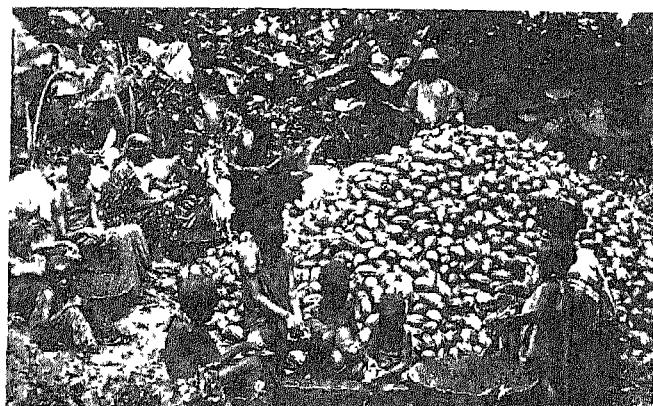
As in all other parts of Africa, there are many different tribes in the Gold Coast. All large villages have their chiefs, who keep law and order. Britain helps these chiefs and their councils to rule. With her help, too, roads and railways have been built as well as ports. The chief deep-water port, Takoradi, was built between the two World Wars. Accra is a seaport and a railway terminus as well. Both have airfields.

The people are eager and ambitious and very keen about education, so there are many schools.

Let us visit an African school. We can follow the children. Here they come. All are bareheaded and barefooted, but looking very trim—the boys in reddish-brown shirts and shorts, the girls in cream-coloured tunics with neat girdles. What strikes us most is the way they carry all their things on their heads—books, a piece of handwork, perhaps a bottle of ink. From

the school compound the bell begins to ring. It is not really a bell, but a suspended iron bar, which a small boy beats lustily.

School begins with an inspection parade in the compound, to see that every one is clean and to make



GOLD COAST: OPENING COCOA-PODS AND
EXTRACTING THE BEANS

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London

sure there are no bites, cuts, or sores that need attention. Then come some physical training exercises and a short religious service. A small drum-and-pipe band plays the children into their classrooms. This march is very popular with them and also with fathers and mothers and other people who can spare a moment to watch. Africans love marching to an ordered rhythm.

For the older children the principal lessons in the morning may be arithmetic and reading, while the infants learn to read and write. The infants begin by learning the language of their own people, and English

is introduced by degrees. At noon they go home to a meal and a rest until the heat of the day has grown less fierce.

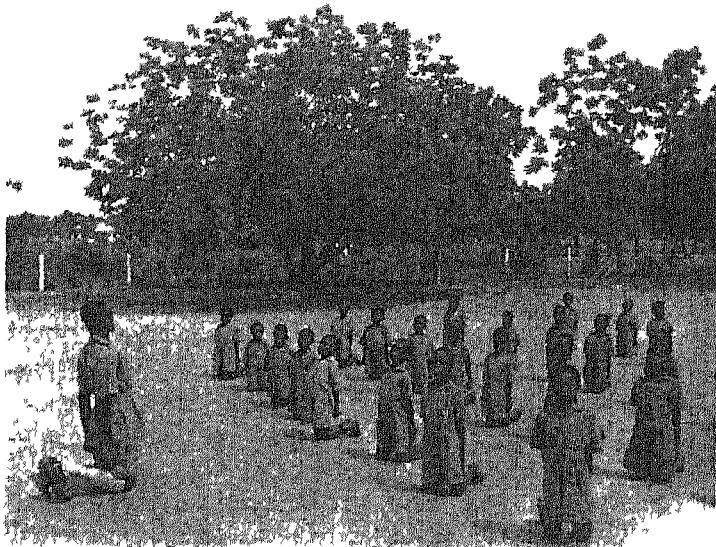
In the afternoon there is work in the garden or on the farm, where they learn nature study and methods of farming. Some practical arithmetic is done in connexion with measuring and weighing. Other groups of pupils do handwork of some kind—basket-making, weaving, carving, pottery. The carving of old designs, learnt from their fathers, on coconut shells is very popular. Wood-carving is one of the ancient crafts of West Africa, but it is now dying out. The wood-carvers in olden days used the hardest wood—mahogany and odum. They shaped the great blocks into drums and stools, and on them carved patterns and pictures of leopards and elephants. Another old craft, the art of pottery, is being kept alive in schools and improved. Many of the Africans use no potter's wheel—for example, the people of the Gold Coast. Each village has its own methods.

A great pleasure to every pupil, old or young, is the percussion band. The instruments the children often make themselves, the drums from wooden kerosene boxes, and pipes from reeds.

The day often ends with games—football or sometimes basket-ball. At five the children go home to enjoy a good supper about six o'clock. The meal, which is served off one 'plate' for the whole family, is generally fufu. This is made of plantains and yams well pounded together in a mortar and then cooked. Very little meat is eaten, for there are so many forests that few cattle can be kept.

One of the finest colleges in West Africa is Achimota, a few miles inland from Accra. It is a great co-

educational boarding-school for 700 girls and boys. The object of the college is to make the children good Africans, so that they live the lives they are most



ACCRA, GOLD COAST: PHYSICAL TRAINING EXERCISES
AT A MISSION SCHOOL

Photo Pictorial Press

fitted for, taking an interest in African affairs and a just pride in African culture.

SIERRA LEONE

Sierra Leone was founded in the early days of Britain's struggle against the slave trade. It was to be a home for freed slaves. In 1807 Britain banned the slave trade, and British merchant ships were forbidden to carry any more slaves. But other nations

did, and smugglers, including British and Americans, were extremely active.

All ships carrying slaves to American or to British planters were likely to be captured, but it was not easy to catch these ships. Freetown, in Sierra Leone, became the British naval headquarters from which frigates and sloops could hunt down the slavers.

In 1833 all slaves in the British Empire were set free.

To-day the majority of the people in Freetown are descendants of slaves liberated in British territory or rescued by the Royal Navy from slave ships; also American slaves and those sent back from England itself. Now near the nooks where slave-traders found ideal hide-outs there are large rice-fields that provide the food of this part of Africa. But the wealth of the land lies in the wild oil-palms that grow in millions; there are kola-nut trees too, from ten to fifteen feet high, with a pod resembling a cocoa-pod. There are mango-trees in plenty round the numerous villages in the south, where houses vary in size, but not in shape. Most houses are rectangular, with an open veranda in front; they are built of mud and wattle, or mud-brick (sun-dried bricks), with a roof of palm-leaves tied closely together or bamboo tiles. We must not think when we read of mud houses or huts in West Africa that they are all small, dirty places. Some mud houses are dirty and uncomfortable, but the greater number are clean and pleasant. Mud building is cheap, and rooms can easily be added. All houses, too, stand in 'compounds.' The huts or separate 'rooms' and the space round is always called a 'compound.' The Africans never talk about a yard or garden, but a 'compound.' Thatched roofs, too, are

very cool and, if properly made, storm-proof. Many houses in Freetown are two or more storeys high, like ours.

Some Africans work in the mines, for both iron ore and diamonds are mined. Many are employed in extracting oil from the fruit and kernels of the oil-palms, for the product is all owned and sold by Africans. The oil is put in metal drums and sent to big overseas markets. There are many educated Africans in Sierra Leone who are politicians, journalists, and clerks. As clerks they have found employment up and down the coast from Bathurst to Lagos for a great many years, and have helped to shape the Colonial Empire.

GAMBIA

Gambia is often called 'the Gambia,' because the territory consists of little more than the river Gambia and its banks from its mouth to a point about three hundred miles upstream. It is surrounded by French Africa. The Portuguese were the first to sail into the river Gambia to pick up ivory and gold, but they left no permanent settlements. In the sixteenth century brave agents of English merchants had trading-posts with forts to protect them. The risks were very great because of the pirates and the war-like native chiefs, who were not eager for peaceful trade. In 1821 a British colony was established to prevent the river Gambia from being used as a source of supply for slaves. The colony had many difficulties because the African chiefs were very angry at having to give up their share of the profits of the slave trade. The Gambia is now a land of small peasant farmers whose principal crop is ground-nuts. Here again we see the African 'compound,' a number of detached 'houses'

or huts with a fence of some kind round them. In the villages of the Gambia all the dwellings are small, with walls of mud or plaster and thatched roofs. There are no large and grand houses, but the elaborately woven basket fencing of bamboo makes the villages, however poor, look attractive.

The ground-nuts are carried by road and river to the port of Bathurst, the capital, which stands on an island near the south bank of the river. Both town and country would suffer if the ground-nuts of Gambia failed to find a ready market.

DRUMS, DANCING, AND STORIES OF AFRICA

An old African legend says that the Creator first made the drummer, then the hunter and the smith. From long, long ago the drum has called the people to meetings, warned them of the approach of danger, directed them on the battlefield, brought them sad or joyful news, helped them in their story-telling—for rhythm is linked with the telling of old stories. It has beaten out music for their dances—all Africans love dancing—mourned at their funerals, and made their tribal gatherings and religious ceremonies more solemn. It is said that the African drum speaks; high and low notes, rapid and slow beats, all mean something, but only the true African understands.

The shape of the drum varies in different parts of Africa and according to the purpose it has to serve, but the general construction is much the same—a hollowed log with an animal skin (in olden days often the ear of an elephant) stretched across the top and held taut by twine or pegs. Charms are often used to decorate the drum. Look at the picture at page 49.

In some parts of West Africa it is said that the Man in the Moon is the god of drummers, and that when the moon is full one can see him holding his drumsticks over his drum.

All Africans enjoy stories, the grown-up men and women as much as the children.

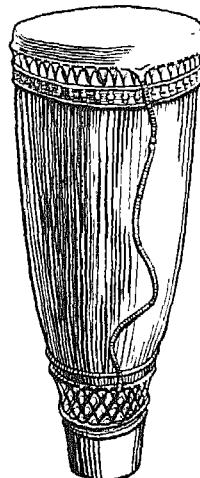
Sometimes in the evening when the day's work is done they gather round a fire outside the chief's hut, and tell old, old tales and fables handed down from father to son and passed from village to village. Children enjoy stories told by their parents, and older children tell stories to younger children during the midday rest.

From time to time the villages are visited by wandering story-tellers or singers who recite verses with the help of a drum.

Nearly all their stories are about animals—their wisdom, courage, or foolishness. The animals in the stories never do what ordinary animals do, but most extraordinary things—for example, a squirrel eats nine leopards. People too do extraordinary things.

Here is a story of Southern Nigeria that Mensa and his family always enjoyed. It is about two things well known to them, the oil-palm tree and the grey parrot of the forest.

How the Parrot got his Red Tail. Long ago there lived in a village in West Africa a lovely little girl called Manu. *Manu* means 'oil'—the smooth red oil of the oil-palm, which when rubbed into the skin makes it soft and beautiful.



AN AFRICAN DRUM

As Manu grew up her father, her mother, her brothers and sisters, all spoilt her. She was never allowed to sit in the heat of the sun lest it should spoil her soft skin, nor to handle the pestle and mortar to prepare the family's food, lest it should roughen her delicate hands. She lived a lazy life, always waited upon and looked after by others. But when it became time for her to marry nobody wanted her for a wife.

"What is the good of a wife who cannot cook and who will not work on the farm?" they said.

After some time a rich farmer agreed to marry Manu for her beauty. He led her proudly to his house, and told all his servants that his lovely wife must have everything she wanted. She must on no account be allowed to walk in the sun or cook her own food.

When harvest-time came, the yam harvest, the farmer went off to attend to his crops, taking all his servants with him except one, who was left to attend to his wife.

This servant was angry because he had been left behind. He said to himself, "A woman should do the cooking," and went off to the forest to pick kola-nuts.

Manu sat in her hut waiting and waiting for food to be brought to her. At last she became so hungry that she stepped outside, and, picking up the pestle, she began to pound up some plantains and yams. But the work and the heat were too much for her, and slowly, slowly, she melted away, until all that was left of the lovely Manu was a pool of red palm-oil!

Now the parrot sat in a tree watching. He was very troubled, because the farmer had always been kind to him and sometimes thrown him maize cobs. He

wondered how he could tell the farmer what had happened.

He flew down from the tree and dipped his tail again and again into the pool of red palm-oil, until it became quite red. Then he flew to the field where the farmer was working, and, circling round and round the farmer, he sang:

“O busy farmer, look at me,
For if you do you'll surely see
That what you left at home is lost.
Look at my tail and know the worst.”

The farmer looked, and when he saw the parrot's red tail he guessed that something had happened to Manu. He hurried home, but he could not change the pool of oil into Manu again.

“It serves me right for marrying a worthless wife,” he said. Then he thanked the parrot for coming to tell him what had happened, and promised that ever after the grey parrot of West Africa should have a red tail.

Now we must leave West Africa. What will you think of when you hear in the future the words ‘West Africa’? Cocoa, ground-nuts, palm-oil, margarine, drums. But remember there are other industries in West Africa, besides farming, that you will read about one day. The West Africans are also engineers and miners. In Sierra Leone diamonds and gold are mined. At Marampa is a mountain of iron ore. Inside the crust of the mountain is the fine-quality grey powder which is almost pure iron. An up-to-date railway line brings the ore to the port of Freetown. Gold is also mined in the Gold Coast. Mining of

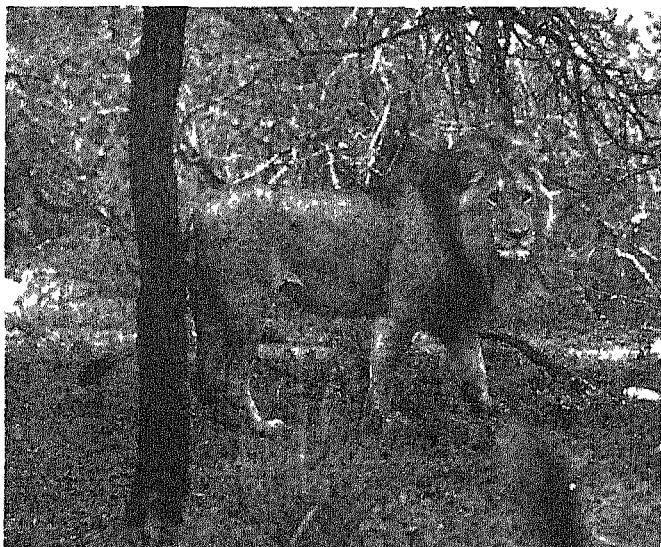
iron, lead, and tin has long been carried on in Nigeria, and the Udi coalfields in Southern Nigeria provide valuable fuel for industry. Other mineral wealth of West Africa is manganese and bauxite, from which our aluminium pots and pans are made. Then there are sugar-makers in the northern province of Nigeria, who use machines from India and deal with thousands of tons of the sugar-cane grown there, turning it into sugar. The sugar they make is very popular with the inhabitants.

Be on the look-out for any news about work or industries in West Africa. Find out all you can about Sir Frederick Lugard, who was Governor of Nigeria from 1912 to 1919. He did much to make Nigeria a happy, settled, orderly country.

CHAPTER II
BRITISH EAST AFRICA

BRITISH SOMALILAND

FIRST find British Somaliland on your map of Africa. This is rather a part of Arabia than of Africa, because the Somali are very like the Arabs.



AN AFRICAN LION
Photo South African Railways

The Somali are fine-looking people, fond of wearing turbans and shawls of gay colours. But they have no liking for settling down or having well-built homes.

They live wandering lives with their camels and asses, oxen, sheep, and goats. It is a poor land they wander over. The coastal plain is a desert plain, "a Land of Heat." Farther inland there are hills and uplands covered with thorny scrub or meagre grass. On the crest of some of the ranges grow mountain cedars, while on the slopes are plants yielding frankincense and myrrh. Hides and skins are the sole exports of this rather barren country. These are exported from the only ports—Berbera, the larger, and Hargeisa. The Somali do not want to change their mode of life. All Britain can do for them at present is to keep them peaceful.

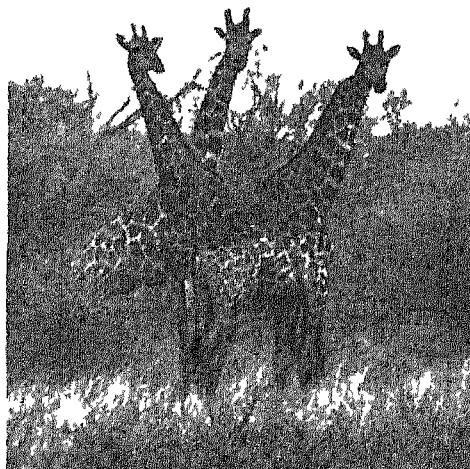
There are no railways, but reports of valuable minerals in the interior may lead to the opening up of the country.

Now look for the countries generally known as East Africa—Uganda, Kenya, Tanganyika Territory, Northern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland—some of the most interesting lands in Africa.

UGANDA

Uganda can be easily found on your map if you look for Lake Victoria, on the Equator. Uganda extends along its northern shores between the Belgian Congo, on the west, and Kenya, on the east. In the north, where the country borders the Sudan, there are great expanses of almost desert land, with little patches of grass and stunted trees. But to the west Uganda comes to an end in a majestic range of mountains with snow-capped peaks. To the south-west there is wild country with deep valleys, swift streams, bamboo forests, and volcanic mountains overlooking a green

plain with deep, mysterious lakes. But in most of the rest of Uganda there are pleasant, wide-spreading grasslands, rising and falling between flat-topped hills, and patches of forest crammed with huge trees.



EAST AFRICAN GIRAFFES

Photo South African Railways

There are no rivers except the baby Nile, which leaves Lake Victoria on its long journey to the Mediterranean.

In the grassy plains round the northern shores of Lake Victoria are villages of neatly built and neatly thatched huts surrounded by tall banana plants and other crops. Nearly all the village folk grow cotton, for cotton is the chief product of Uganda. Because of the railway built by the British from Kampala, the

commercial centre of Uganda, to the port of Mombasa, in Kenya (which thus links Uganda with the Indian Ocean), the cotton-growers have been able to export their cotton easily, and the country has become very prosperous. Cotton is not the only export of Uganda. There are important sugar plantations, with good modern factories for milling the cane—that is, crushing the canes to get out the sweet juice. These mills are near Jinja, an important town on Lake Victoria, overlooking the falls where the Nile leaves the lake.

Freed from the fear of Arab slave-traders and helped by the British, many of the Africans have become well educated. The first university for East African people, Makerere College, began in the neighbourhood of Kampala. Not all the Africans are, of course, educated, but education is spreading, and with British help the African chiefs rule well. There are already a few secondary schools for African girls.

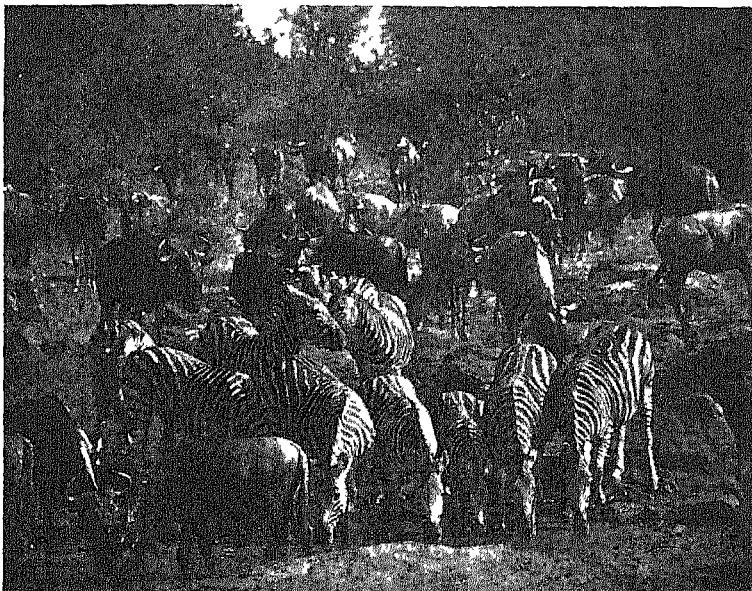
Although the African village folk grow the cotton with great success, all the marketing of the crops is in the hands of Indians. You will learn about these Indians in Chapter VI.

KENYA

From Uganda we can go by rail to Kenya, another wonderful country, in size somewhat larger than Spain. From the tropical shores bordering the Indian Ocean the land ascends through every variety of climate. There are great plains haunted by many different wild beasts, from lions and antelopes to blue monkeys.

East Africa is indeed the land of big game. In the picture opposite you can see some of the animals that are found, not only in Kenya, but in Tanganyika and East Africa generally. There are many big-game

districts and reserves where wild creatures are protected, both in Uganda and in Kenya. In these may be seen a wonderful collection of wild animals living in their natural surroundings—elephants, lions, giraffes, rhino-

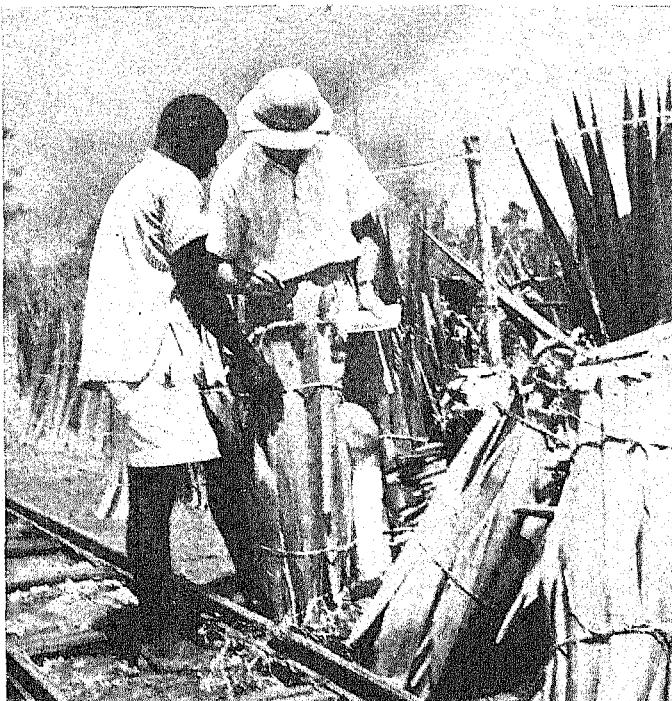


ZEBRAS AND WILDEBEESTS COME DOWN TO DRINK

Photo South African Railways

ceroses, many species of antelope, ostriches, wild dogs, jackals, pigs, monkeys, etc. Farther inland, as the plain slopes upward to the highlands, there are fewer wild beasts and more signs of man's activities. The first great landmark of this activity is Nairobi, the capital of Kenya, a well-planned modern city. To the north-west of Nairobi lie the highlands, which, because of the cool climate, have become the home of white settlers. It is strange to find a colony of white

people almost in the heart of Africa. Here are successful coffee, sisal, and tea plantations, cereal farms, and



SISAL, THE GREEN GOLD OF AFRICA

When the sisal leaves have been cut and the top removed the leaves are tied in bundles and taken to be torn by a machine into yellow-white strips. Here a field inspector examines the bundles.

Photo Paul Popper

cattle ranches; also towns with hotels, churches, golf clubs, garages, etc.

About a hundred miles north of Nairobi stands Mount Kenya; it is just on the Equator, but its clean-cut peaks are snow-clad all the year round. The

earlier settlers must have had courage and enterprise to find this ideal land, for they had to pass through a wild country and over many obstacles caused by trackless hills, and cross rivers whose banks were



A KIKUYU FAMILY AT HOME

Photo Paul Popper

clothed in deep forests. The land was tenanted only by herds of big game—elephant, rhino, giraffe, buffalo, hippo, lion, leopard, gazelle, zebra.

But the most interesting people in Kenya are the African tribes. These tribes vary greatly. In the highlands live the Kikuyu, one of the largest tribes. The picture above shows a Kikuyu family at home. They wear brown skin garments that suit their brown skins. Not so many years ago, before there were any

railways, the Kikuyu were savage people, fighting their hereditary enemies, the Masai, or hunting with spears and poisoned arrows. To-day they are a contented people working happily on their farms, where they grow maize, keep dairy cattle and flocks of sheep and goats, which are tended by their children.

On the north-eastern shores of Lake Victoria British enterprise can be seen in the gold-mines in Kavirondo. Around all the mines and workings are fertile gardens cultivated by the natives, and over vast areas of country the Africans live their normal lives in their little villages, scarcely disturbed by the white miners, who themselves often live in picturesque grass-roofed houses with walls of mud or wood. Because of the good sense of the miners and natives there have been no quarrels; neither party has encroached on the liberty of the other.

Besides the great number of Africans in Kenya, and the white settlers, there are in Mombasa, the port of Kenya, and once an Arab trading centre, some Arabs whose forefathers ruled the coastal area and thrrove on the slave trade, but the Arabs have decreased in number and importance. Then there are Indians, many of them wealthy merchants, but most of them shopkeepers, contractors, and technical workers.

TANGANYIKA

Tanganyika is very like Kenya, only larger and less cultivated. The country is wilder, and native life is simpler. Here Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain in Africa, thrusts its ice-capped peak into the sky. On the slopes live a progressive people called the Chagga. When approaching the foot of the mountain one can see smoke rising from thousands of homesteads belonging to these sturdy mountain people. They live in

beehive-shaped huts hidden away in rich banana groves. They have themselves started a co-operative scheme for selling the coffee they produce.

The four main crops grown in Tanganyika are sisal, coffee, cotton, and ground-nuts. Sisal is grown entirely by white settlers who live in the highlands;



TANGANYIKA: A MASAI WITH HIS HERD OF CATTLE

Photo Exclusive News Agency

coffee and cotton are grown by both white people and Africans; ground-nuts are grown almost entirely by Africans.

By far the most interesting people in Tanganyika are the Masai. Their kraals can be seen in the rolling plains, where they lead a wandering life. They are cattle-men, and spend their days tending cattle. There are nearly five million head of African-owned cattle in the centre and north. Because the Masai depend on cattle they must move every few months to fresh pastures. Their villages, therefore, are very roughly

built. The women build the huts of boughs and twigs woven together and plastered with mud. In wet weather cattle hides are thrown over them to keep out the rain. The low, round huts are arranged in a circle. Around the outside of the village is a thick fence which is made of thorn to protect cattle at night from lions and other wild beasts, for the cattle have to spend the night in the spaces between the huts and the enclosure. However, they are let out in the daytime to graze.

The Masai dress in the skins of animals. Not so very long ago every Masai boy was brought up to be a warrior and a hunter. His father taught him how to make an oval shield of hide stretched on a wooden framework, and how to make a wooden club. He had a tall spear and a sword. A successful hunter made himself a headdress from the animals he killed—say, from the mane of a lion. Warriors liked to wear headdresses because they made them look more fierce in battle. They delighted to make war on other tribes—the Kikuyu, for instance—and steal their cattle; they also raided villages if they wanted grain. The British have stopped all the wandering tribes from taking each other's cattle and from fighting, so there are no more warriors and fewer hunters. The Masai used to hunt wild animals as a pastime—the lion for its mane, the giraffe for the hairs of the tail, which were used as thread, the ostrich for its feathers, and so on. Now there are fewer wild animals, and those that there are have to be protected—but Tanganyika is still the land of big game, “the meeting-place of all game from all corners of the African continent”—giraffes, zebras, lions, leopards, jackals, antelopes of many kinds, rhinos, and hippos.

To-day the Masai have mainly to tend their cattle. The women milk the cows, cook, and carry water, soften the hides, make the clothes, look after the children—and, we must not forget, they build the houses.



KENYA: MASAI WOMEN BUILDING HUTS

Their menfolk watch them and make occasional suggestions.

Photo Exclusive News Agency

Rearing cattle is one of the most important activities in East Africa, and hides and skins are exported in great quantities. Many of the wandering herdsmen, even the truculent Masai, are settling down in permanent homes and beginning to grow some crops.

We must remember that the peoples of East Africa (indeed, of nearly all Africa) are divided into tribes. The tribesmen are very loyal to one another, and think of themselves as belonging to one big family—the

tribe. The different tribes are helping the British to govern East Africa, and the chiefs are responsible, guided by British officials, for much of the welfare and good government of their own tribes.

NORTHERN RHODESIA

When we reach Northern Rhodesia we are almost in South Africa. It was David Livingstone, the great missionary and explorer, who made the country known to Britain. He explored it, and was the first white man to see the Victoria Falls, called by the natives "the Smoke that Thunders." He gave a true and careful account of all he saw. His good work and the kind way he treated the natives helped to make it possible for white people to settle later in Rhodesia. His memory is still cherished there, and his name honoured. Cecil Rhodes, who gave the land his name, brought it under British control by forming the British South Africa Company. The first thing that had to be done was to stop the slave trade. Livingstone had bravely fought against it. All along the shores of the Indian Ocean in his day the Arab slave-traders and their African helpers were at work causing misery, bloodshed, and tribal wars. How the slave trade was finally stamped out is a long story of heroism that cannot be told here.

Northern Rhodesia is a land of great grassy plains gently rising and falling. In many places the plains are broken by hills. It is a land, too, of beautiful waterfalls and rivers. Roaming its vast bush and open plains are to be found all the most interesting creatures of Central Africa—the black rhino, blue monkey, giraffe, hippo, crocodile, baboon, leopard, hyena, etc. Because the country is well wooded the game is not so apparent as in some parts of East Africa.

Cattle abound, and many of the African tribes are cattle-men, and spend their days tending their cattle. It is such a big land that there is plenty of room for Africans and European settlers. Maize is grown by both Europeans and Africans, and is used as food, though some is exported. Coffee and tobacco are grown for export by Europeans, but the real wealth of Northern Rhodesia lies in its copper-mines, its copper belt. Here woodland and grassland give place to shaft and pit and town. Here are towns with hotels, garages, cinemas, shops, like our towns. The copper belt attracts Africans from villages throughout Northern Rhodesia and beyond its frontiers.

Here, as in many parts of Africa, one can hear the rhythm of the drums in the bush; the haunting cadence and unfamiliar sound of native music has a charm of its own that is not easily forgotten.

NYASALAND

Now see if you can find Nyasaland along the shore of Lake Nyasa and between Northern Rhodesia and the lake. Nyasaland also grows tobacco. It is a picturesque country, something like Scotland in a tropical setting. Among the mountains are uplands often stretching for miles, the grass growing in tufts and reaching a great height in the rainy season. Here and there are clumps of thick forest.

The villages are like many villages in Africa—groups of thatched huts round or oblong in shape. Round the village are tall banana-plants and papaw-trees, vegetable plots, poultry, and goats. Nyasaland was once a land of warring tribes, the stronger preying on the weaker; often a tribe joined hands with the Arabs from the east coast in slave-trading or made slave raids

on its own. It was not until the beginning of the twentieth century, our century, that the new protectorate was made peaceful and the slave trade finally done away with.

Tobacco is now Nyasaland's great source of wealth; it is grown by both Europeans and Africans. Cotton



NYASALAND: TOBACCO GROWING

Photo Exclusive News Agency

is also grown by Europeans. Because of the money obtained from the tobacco crops Nyasaland is able to have hospitals, schools, and colleges—for example, the Jeanes Training College for young Africans.

But the future of tobacco-growing both in Northern Rhodesia and in Nyasaland depends on the United Kingdom. If people in Britain like Empire tobacco and buy it, all will go well with Nyasaland, but if they smoke *only* American-grown tobacco many Africans may be ruined. So great is the amount of tobacco smoked in the British Isles that what comes from Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland is only 3 per cent.

of the whole. If the amount bought by Britain could be doubled the results on colonial prosperity would be very great.

ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA

These are two lovely islands lying off Tanganyika Territory. Zanzibar is not a colony. It is a sultanate under British protection. Although geographically it belongs to Africa, its people and history belong to the East—to Asia. Settlers of various kinds have come from Arabia, from the Persian Gulf, and from India to make Zanzibar their home. Arab princes and merchant adventurers made it the centre of the Moslem faith (see Chapter VI). For the merchant adventurers Africa was the land of ivory and slaves, and Zanzibar became one of the great slave markets of the world. Slaves planted the clove plantations that have been the source of Zanzibar's wealth in recent years. The Africans to-day on these islands are largely composed of descendants of slaves. In religion and outlook they are Arabs, very different from the peoples of the African continent.

Another kind of settler has helped to unite Zanzibar to Asia—namely, the Indian. Although Arabs and Africans own the plantations, all the trade, money-lending, and therefore power, are in the hands of the Indians, Hindu as well as Moslem (see Chapter VI). Arabs and Africans get on well together, but the Indians keep more apart.

The town and seaport of Zanzibar is very picturesque, with its mosques and massive Arab houses and narrow streets. Its harbour is often packed with dhows, craft that for centuries have navigated these waters.

Although cloves are a source of wealth, they are not a very secure source, since satisfactory substitutes for cloves are apt to be found. The coconut industry ranks next in importance to cloves.

You will read about Southern Rhodesia, a self-governing Dominion, and South Africa, a member state of the British Commonwealth of Nations, in Chapter VII.

CHAPTER III

CEYLON, THE MALAYAN UNION AND SINGAPORE, BRITISH BORNEO

CEYLON

CEYLON is a lovely island about as big as Scotland. Because of its great natural beauties it has been called 'the pearl of the Indian Ocean.' In shape it is something like a big pear.

It lies not very far north of the Equator, so we know it will be very warm there all the year round. It has a pleasant climate because of its mountains, which are far greater than any in Britain. Some of the peaks are more than twice as high as Snowdon. The mountains rise in the way of the clouds, and help to bring rain, and from the mountain slopes cool breezes blow down to mingle with the warm air of the valleys. The warmth and the rain make Ceylon a lovely land of trees and flowers. The gay robes of the people add to the charm of the scene.

A traveller's first sight of Ceylon from the sea is one of luxurious coconut-palms fringing creeks and coves, and seeming to grow almost out of the water, while small native craft dart in and out of the coves (see picture at page 71).

An island placed on the main route between the West and the East must have a very varied population, and there are many different races and religions in Ceylon. The greater number of the people are Sinhalese. They came from India, from the valley of the Ganges, in

the sixth century before Christ, and conquered Ceylon. They are a clever race with an old history. In religion they are Buddhists, members of a religion taught by an Indian prince called Gautama, who was born in Northern India in 625 B.C. He was called Gautama Buddha; hence Buddhists and Buddhism. Buddha means 'the Enlightened.' His teaching did not take a strong hold on India, but it spread to Ceylon and Eastern Asia.

Because it is so near to India there are in Ceylon many Tamils from Southern India. Some have lived in the northern part of Ceylon for a long time, and every year great numbers cross the gulf that separates the mainland from Ceylon. The coast of Ceylon is almost joined to India by the island of Rameswaram and Adam's Bridge, a number of bold rocks reaching across the gulf at its narrowest point. Piers have been built, and ferry steamers make the sea journey of twenty-two miles across in two hours.

The Tamils come over to work in the tea and rubber plantations. They are very good workers, and go wherever they can find work. It is said that wherever there is money to be earned there are Tamils. Many of them, when they have made enough money, return to India. They are Hindus by religion (see Chapter VI).

Then the Arabs came to Ceylon. Once they carried on much of the foreign trade of the island, and some of them settled there and took Ceylonese wives. Their descendants, the 'Moormen,' have kept their Moslem religion. There are other Moslems living there besides the descendants of the Arabs, but they are all called 'Moors' or Moormen.

The first Europeans to set foot in Ceylon were the

Portuguese. They gained great wealth from cinnamon in the days when spices from the East were much in demand. Then the Dutch East India Company sent an expedition to the island and conquered the Portuguese, who for twenty years gallantly resisted. Thus



CATAMARANS AT MOUNT LAVINIA, COLOMBO, CEYLON

Photo Exclusive News Agency

Ceylon became a valuable possession of the Dutch East India Company. During the Napoleonic wars, when Holland joined France in the war against Britain, the British captured Ceylon so that the island should not be used by the French as a base from which to attack India.

The different buildings in Ceylon show the different religions; there are Buddhist shrines, or stupas, round mounds with tapering spires built over some relic of

the Buddha; Hindu temples covered with images of gods and goddesses (see Chapter VI); Moslem mosques with arches, minarets, and domes; and Christian churches.

In Colombo, the capital of Ceylon, full of beautiful buildings and one of the world's great ports, we can see some of the varied people of Ceylon—Sinhalese ladies in robes of every shade and colour, a gentle-looking Sinhalese man wearing a round tortoiseshell comb, with sharp-pointed, upturned ends, on top of his head to show that his family have never borne burdens on their heads. He is a high-caste Sinhalese. Then come a Hindu, with his own particular turban, a tall, fierce-looking, beturbaned Afghan, a Moslem in a plain red fez, and Sinhalese men with gay sarongs draped round their waists. Among this gay throng are those wearing the duller garments of the West—the Burghers (descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch), Europeans, and Americans. The Indians, the Tamils of Northern Ceylon, are probably busy working on tea and rubber plantations.

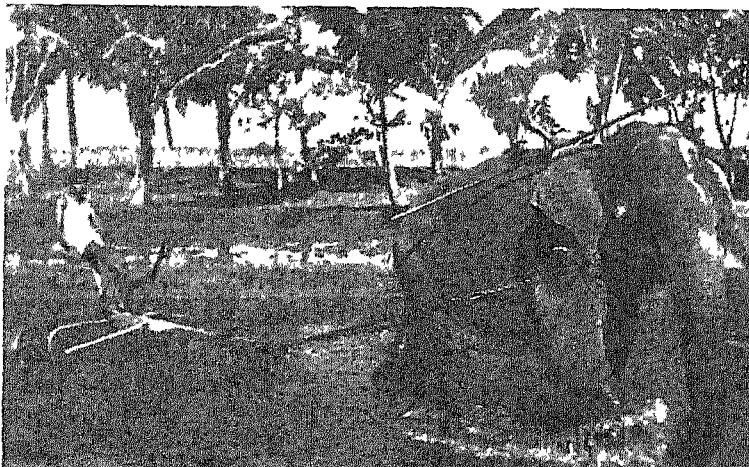
When the British captured Ceylon from the Dutch they made the people happy and peaceful more quickly by promising to respect their religions and customs. Under British rule the island soon became prosperous, for when the coffee plantations failed tea was substituted. Next to India, Ceylon is the most important tea-growing country in the world.

But Ceylon does not depend on tea alone; the British introduced rubber there from Kew in 1876. It was first grown successfully in the Botanic Gardens in Ceylon, and soon there were large rubber plantations founded by British or European companies.

Now, what work do the natives of Ceylon, the

Sinhalese, do? The British and other Europeans own the tea and rubber plantations and some large coconut plantations; the Indian Tamils work on these plantations; while many of the shopkeepers are Moslems.

The Sinhalese are farmers, craftsmen, and fishermen. They do not take to working on big plantations under



CEYLON: AN ELEPHANT PULLING A MODERN STEEL PLOUGH
THROUGH THE MUD OF A PADDY-FIELD

Photo Pictorial Press

masters, and until quite recently they looked down upon shopkeeping, and left it to the Moslems and Arabs. It is not the labour of the Sinhalese that has made Ceylon a rich country.

You must think of the great majority of Sinhalese as country folk living in villages and cultivating the soil to provide for their own needs rather than to sell. The main food of the people is rice, so there are many rice-fields. In the picture on this page you can see the fertile mud of a rice-field being ploughed with the

help of an elephant. Oxen are also used to draw the ploughs. Not only are there rice-fields in the valleys, but one can see whole hillsides terraced for growing rice. Very lovely the rice-fields look; the seedlings grow into grasses of vivid green before ripening to a glorious yellow, which forms a contrast with the rich evergreen vegetation clothing the country round.

But let us visit a farmer. His cottage is built of wood and mud. It is well thatched with palm-leaves, and has an open front with an overhanging roof. In the picture opposite you can see the open front and some of the furniture. He considers he is well off because, besides the plot of land upon which he grows rice, his vegetable patch and fruit-trees, he has a few hundred coconut-palms. His fruit-trees are interesting. He has one or two jak-trees. The fruit looks like a huge water-melon with a very rough, bright green surface. The jak, with its seeds, is boiled or cooked in the form of a curry. When ripe it is also eaten as a fruit. The farmer has some breadfruit-trees too. The fruit is smaller than the jak. The breadfruit is as important a food to many of the people of Ceylon, especially the poor, as bread is to us. Hence perhaps it has been given its name. It is cooked as a vegetable and never eaten raw. Plantains (bananas) also are growing on his holding, to be eaten when green as a curry and when ripe as fruit. He has a few areca-nut trees as well; these nuts are for chewing. The people of Ceylon and India—and, indeed, all Eastern people—are as fond of chewing these nuts as Americans are of chewing gum. Thus the farmer has practically all the food he needs for his family. The coconut-palms are his money crop; he can sell the nuts, and with the money buy clothing or any other things he wants. In

the picture at page 76 you can see coconuts being opened and dried. Apart from the coconuts the palms themselves are very useful in many ways. The leaves are woven into baskets and into mats for floor-covering and for fencing. The women gather the fallen leaves



CEYLON: A FARMER'S COTTAGE

Photo Exclusive News Agency

for fuel; at night the country folk walk about guided by the light of a flare made of coconut leaves. So expert are the villagers in making these that they know how long they will keep alight merely by rolling them more or less tightly. Fibres from the husks in which the nuts are encased are used for making rope and twine, and all along the coast men, women, and children can be seen at this work. The dried shell

cut in half forms a cup in common use in villages and on plantations. The dried 'whitemeat,' or copra, is the part that is sold for making margarine and soap. You can understand why many Sinhalese have their own coconut gardens.

Handicrafts flourish most in spots all along the



CEYLON: OPENING COCONUTS AND SUN-DRYING KERNELS

By courtesy of the Imperial Institute, London

coast. Here will be found cabinet-making centres, where whole families, women included, work at carpentry, sometimes in the shade of a tree, sometimes in an open shed, and turn out well-made furniture. At the mouth of the Kala Ganga, one of Ceylon's many lovely rivers, the villagers weave dyed palm-leaf splits or reed splits into hats, bags, baskets, purses, boxes, and mats. These are beautifully coloured and soft and pleasant to handle. Galle is the centre of the carved coconut, moonstone, tortoiseshell, and seashell industry. At Tangalla iguana and crocodile skins are worked up into bags and other articles. Fine pillow-lace is made by the women in different parts.

Pearl-fishing is carried on, and sapphires, rubies, cat's-eyes, and topazes are mined. The art of cutting and polishing stones has been practised for a long time in Ceylon. The gem-cutters are Moslems. They can be seen at work in their booth-like shops in Ratnapura ('the City of Gems'), Colombo, and other large towns.

Because of the prosperity of the tea and rubber plantations many improvements have been made by the British in Ceylon: roads and railways have been built, tanks and reservoirs in villages which do not get enough rain for growing rice, and hospitals. There are rural schools in every village, and universities are being built.

Ceylon, which has a Parliament very like ours, became self-governing in 1948.

THE MALAYAN UNION AND SINGAPORE

When you look at Malaya on a map it seems an unimportant place, because it is so small and Asia is so big. It is about the size of England. People who live in England do not think England is unimportant because it is small.

Malaya is the tip of South-eastern Asia, a peninsula surrounded by many islands. To the west and south-west the Malacca Strait separates it from the island of Sumatra. At its southern end lies the island of Singapore, linked to the mainland by a causeway across a narrow strip of water. On all sides Malaya is bounded by the sea except the north, where it touches Siam (Thailand).

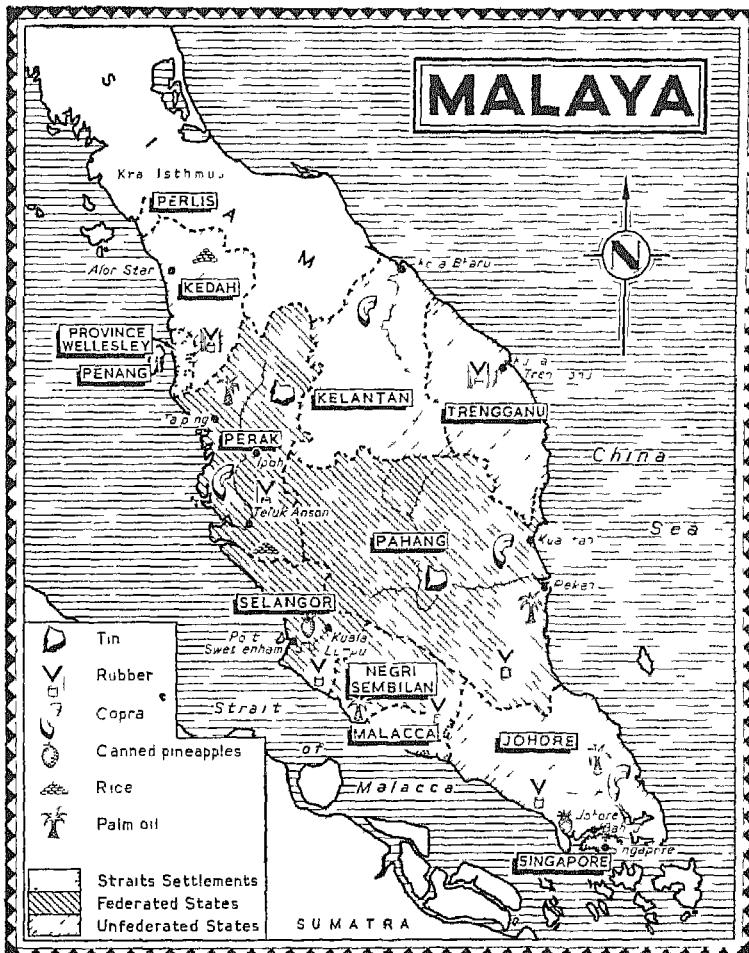
The Portuguese and the Dutch were the first to have trading-stations in Malaya, a land of little states ruled by Moslem sultans. The Portuguese made Malacca, a town on the western coast of Malaya facing

the strait to which the city has given its name, an important trading-port, where sailing-ships from China and the lands around brought their cargoes to be shipped to the West. Then, in the seventeenth century, the Dutch drove the Portuguese out and kept Malacca for themselves. It was not until the end of the eighteenth century that the British made a settlement in Malaya. The East India Company bought the island of Penang, off the west coast, and a strip of the mainland called Province Wellesley, after the Duke of Wellington, from the Sultan of Kedah. Penang was important because it was a half-way port on the route from India to China, with which the tea trade was beginning. It was an uninhabited island except for a few Malay and Chinese fishermen who came from time to time to fish. The British used Penang as a naval base where their ships could be repaired, but it made rapid progress because many traders came there, as they were allowed to trade freely.

Malacca was occupied by the British during the wars with France and Napoleon. It was useful as a base from which to attack French ships in Eastern waters. In 1824 the Dutch handed it over completely to Great Britain and gave up all claims to it.

The next British settlement was Singapore, founded by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819. It was to become one of the great ports of the world. Raffles was clever enough to see its future value, but it was not easy to persuade the East India Company or the British Government to purchase it, for the island was a swampy one, fringed with mangroves, and the haunt of pirates. The Malays shunned it because it had a bad name. But at last it was bought from the friendly Sultan of Johore, the most southerly of the Malay states.

MALAYA



Settlers and traders flocked to Singapore because of the wise rule of Raffles. Every one was sure of just treatment, and Raffles, who hated slavery, worked hard to put it down and to check piracy.

Malacca, Penang, the island of Labuan, off Borneo, and Singapore became known as the Straits Settlements. Look again at the map for the states ruled by the sultans. In these states there was slavery. Men who were captured in battle were made slaves; people were also made slaves as a punishment for crimes and for debts. On the coast the pirates flourished. Life in these states was not so peaceful and secure as in the British Straits Settlements. The sultans sometimes asked advice from the British, and some sultans who were in difficulties had a British Resident to help them. Treaties with the various states brought them all under British control or protection—the Federated States of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, with their capital Kuala Lumpur; and the Unfederated States of Johore, Kedah, Perlis, Kelantan, and Trengganu—nine states ruled by sultans. Under British protection Malaya steadily improved. Slavery was stopped and piracy checked as far as possible.

But let us turn now to the people of Malaya, their homes and their work. This will help us to understand what the British have done for Malaya.

The Jungle and the Jungle Folk. The word 'Malaya' is really a modern English word made by adding 'a' to the name of the *Malay* people. The Malays, although they give their name to the country, are not the only inhabitants, nor the first. The natives, or aborigines, still live in the uncleared jungles, especially in the highlands. They are called Negritoess

or Sakais. They are small, dark people with frizzy hair who spend wandering lives. They live on fruits and meat. They still use the blow-pipes and poisoned arrows of their ancestors.

It would be interesting to spend some time in the jungle, for there are so many plants, trees, and flowers, beasts, birds, and insects to see. It is said that there is a more varied collection of creatures to be found in Malaya than anywhere else. Here we can mention only a few. There are snakes and lizards and little furry creatures; there are buffaloes and noisy, curious monkeys—the gibbon, black with white feet, and with white ring round his face, the coconut monkey (the bruh), which is trained to climb the coconut-palms and pick coconuts, the leaf monkey, silvery or grey with a long tail, and others. The Malayan tiger is a large, ferocious beast, which, fortunately perhaps, very few people in Malaya have seen. Then there are black panthers, spotted leopards, wild cats, elephants, the two-horned rhinoceros, flying foxes, squirrels; the little honey-bear looks very cuddly, but he has long, sharp claws. Wisest of all beasts, say the Malays, is the little mouse-deer. Many folk-tales are told about him, something like those told about Brer Rabbit in the Negro tales of Uncle Remus.

Then there are 650 different kinds of birds. Do you know how many different kinds there are in Britain? But now we must come to the *Malays*.

The Peoples of Malaya. The Malays must have come long, long ago to Malaya from neighbouring islands or from the north. They are intelligent, happy, brown people, not perhaps very fond of hard work. At first, you remember, many of them were

pirates. Now most of them live in villages, in houses trimly built of wood and roofed with a thatch of great palm-leaves. These houses are raised above the ground (see picture at page 83). On the shores they are built on piles over the water (see picture at page 83). The Malays are such expert fishermen that it is not surprising to find their coast villages struggling off the land into the sea, as though they had walked there on stilts.

The villages inland are very pretty; every homestead has a grove of coconut-palms watered by a canal (these canals are due to the British); every homestead has its fruit-trees—custard apples, jak-fruit, pomegranates, etc. There are also bananas or plantains, and very often clumps of sugar-cane and sago-palms. Many Malays have rice-fields, especially in the north. They see no reason why they should work in the towns or in the tin-mines or on rubber plantations. They can easily grow enough food for themselves, and sell their surplus vegetables and coconuts to the Chinese. If a Malay has rubber-trees—and many have small plantations—he will probably let them out to a Chinese. The Chinese are always ready to work.

Nearly every village has a good road within a short distance, a supply of pure water laid on by hydrants, and a school. The people look happy. They love to watch their children at play, and delight in dressing in gay colours. As they are an artistic people their clothes are pleasing; they wear a coloured sarong draped to hang to about the level of the ankles, and over this a loose jacket. But the Malays are not the only people in Malaya; the Chinese have been steadily coming in, and now there are as many Chinese there as Malays. Half the inhabitants of the towns are Chinese; in



THE MAIN ROAD THROUGH THE VILLAGE OF BESERAH,
PAHANG, MALAYA

Photo Exclusive News Agency



KELETAN, MALAYA: A NATIVE VILLAGE BUILT ON PILES

Photo Exclusive News Agency

Singapore the Chinese have very fine shops, and are more numerous than any other race; some towns, like Penang, are famous for Chinese temples. The Malays take little interest in the tin-mines, but the Chinese have worked them for a long time. Under British protection more tin has been produced because modern machinery was set up. Much of the business of the country too is in the hands of the Chinese, who have helped to make modern Malaya.

Next in number to the Chinese come the Indians. The greater number of Indians are Tamils from Southern India (Madras), but there are some Northern Indians, including Punjabi. Besides these three main races, there are also—though in much lesser numbers—Europeans, Eurasians, Japanese (there were 7000 at the time of the Japanese invasion in 1941), and Arabs. Most of the Indians in Malaya are Hindus by religion, though some are Moslems, like the Malays themselves. There are therefore Hindu temples, Moslem mosques, and Chinese temples in Malaya.

We must remember the difference between the words 'Malays' and 'Malayans.' The Malays are the natives of Malaya; the Malayans are *all who live in Malaya*—Malays, Chinese, Indians, and others.

The British helped the prosperity of Malaya by the introduction of rubber. This was a wholly British enterprise. The first British planters found great difficulties in their way. The work of converting heavy tropical jungles into orderly plantations was enormous. Often the planters saw no white people—or, indeed, anyone but themselves—for weeks on end. They were alone in the jungle. It was difficult to get any natives to help them. They had to fight fever and disease and insects that attacked their trees. They

found their best helpers in the Tamils of Southern India. Thus the greater number of workers on the big rubber plantations that grew up were Tamils.

Britons, Chinese, and Indians have contributed to the wealth of Malaya, and made it possible for them



MALAYAN VILLAGE BELLES

Photo Paul Popper

to enjoy the comforts of civilization. Without tin and rubber Malaya would be far less prosperous.

The Japanese would have liked to destroy every rubber-tree before they retreated from the country defeated, but they had time to destroy only some. Those not destroyed were all the better for their long rest from being tapped for rubber. The Chinese tin-workers perhaps suffered most, for their machinery was destroyed and their mines were flooded. Malaya should have a prosperous future before her because,

besides tin and rubber, she has other sources of wealth—coconut plantations, oil-palms grown for soap-makers, other mineral resources besides tin (gold, coal, iron, etc.). Then we must not forget pineapple-canning. Before the Second World War Malaya had become the world's second greatest producer of canned pineapples. This was due to Chinese enterprise. Malaya has, besides, all the good things she has inherited through British rule—towns, cities, railways, bridges and dams, vast schemes of irrigation, docks and warehouses, and above all a health service which has changed Malaya from a breeding-ground of disease to one, perhaps, of the most healthy places in the Far East.

In 1946 plans were made to give the people of Malaya a share in the Government. The nine Malay states ruled by their sultans and the British settlements of Penang and Malacca were to form the Federation of Malaya, with a strong central Government to look after all matters that concerned the country as a whole. The central Government was to consist of a High Commissioner appointed by the Crown, a Federal Executive Council to aid the High Commissioner, and a Federal Legislative Council, something like our Parliament, for making laws. The states of the sultans and the Settlements kept their own local Governments, but these were to be reformed and have legislative councils. Every one, whether Malay, Chinese, or Indian, was to have a vote for the legislative councils and be a citizen if he regarded the Union as his true home and as the object of his loyalty. Singapore, with Christmas Island and the Cocos (Keeling) Islands, was to be a separate colony, but, like the Federation of Malaya, it was to have elected legislative councils.

The idea behind these suggestions was that one day Malaya and Singapore were to be completely self-governing. In the beginning of 1948 these suggestions came into force. Kuala Lumpur is now the capital of the Federation of Malaya, and the old Federal Building once used by the four Federated States now houses the 'Parliament' (Legislative Council) and Government of the new Federation. Every one—Malay, Chinese, or Indian—has a vote for members of the legislative councils. Singapore was also given its own elections and Constitution early in 1948. Elections were first held in March 1948. The Governor and Parliament began their work in April.

Unity and self-government in Malaya is going to be difficult with three such different sets of people as Malays, Chinese, and Indians. Unless careful preparations are made and some education in self-government given there is the danger that Malays will never accept the authority of a Chinese official, Chinese that of an Indian, or Indians that of a Malay, whereas they would accept the authority of a fourth party—Britain. Britain must keep the peace and hold the balance *until* Malays, Chinese, and Indians have learnt to look upon Malaya as their country, learnt to work together for her, and learnt to trust one another. It is a difficult task to weld the nine states of the peninsula with Malacca and Penang into one whole, so that Malaya is a self-governing Dominion able to hold her own in a world that tends to be quarrelsome and greedy.

For the sake of the past, for the sake of the brave Britons who colonized so wisely, and have always been the trusted friends of the Malays, the new Malayan Union must be a success. Malaya has suffered once

because Britain had to fail her; she must not suffer again.

You must follow in the future the history of Malaya, and especially the history of Singapore, Raffles's Singapore. It was the influence of men like Raffles, who looked upon Asiatics as fellow human beings, whatever their religion or customs, that helped to make the British Empire possible.

BRITISH BORNEO

North Borneo. Look in your atlas for the island of Borneo, east of Malaya. There are three states in British Borneo—North Borneo, Brunei, and the interesting territory of Sarawak. North Borneo was ruled by the British North Borneo Company until 1946, when the territory became the colony of North Borneo and included the island of Lebuan. It is ruled by a Governor appointed by the Crown and helped by an Advisory Council. This is only until the time when the people themselves can take part in the government. It has many useful products, such as sago, rubber, timber, and copra. Much of the country is covered with great forests containing valuable timber, and timber is also plentiful in Brunei and Sarawak. Lovely tropical plants grow there—orchids, rhododendrons, and pitcher plants. It is the home, too, of the orang-utan (which means 'jungle man') as well as the honey-bear, rhinoceros, and other jungle animals. North Borneo possesses the highest mountain in all this mountainous island, Mount Kinabalu, 13,680 feet.

Brunei is a very small state, because much of it has been absorbed by Sarawak. However, it shares

with Sarawak the possession of the two most important oilfields on the island. Oil is by far the most valuable mineral in Brunei. Brunei is a protected state ruled by a sultan assisted by a state council and helped by a British Resident, who is directly responsible to the Governor-General of Malaya.

Sarawak. Over a hundred years ago, in 1839, an Englishman, James Brooke, landed in Sarawak. He had ideals like those of Sir Stamford Raffles. He found the people oppressed by their own chiefs, poor, and living in daily terror of slave-raiders and pirates. He stayed to help them and defend them against the wicked gangs that infested the country. He succeeded in restoring order, and was asked by the Sultan of Borneo to rule Sarawak. Brooke accepted, and became the first 'White Rajah.' He placed all his personal money into the enterprise. At that time Sarawak was about as big as Yorkshire, but parts of Brunei have been added to it, and it is now as large as England. Like the rest of Borneo, it is inhabited by various peoples, Malaysians, Dyaks, Chinese, etc. The Dyaks were considered the most savage and barbarous head-hunters in Eastern waters, but under the wise rule of James Brooke they lived at peace with the people of other races. Brooke died in 1867, and the second Rajah, his nephew, continued to increase the prosperity of the state. In 1946, at the suggestion of the third and last Rajah and subject to the consent of his people, it was planned to hand Sarawak over to the Colonial Office. Sarawak became a Colony on July 1, 1946, and the new Governor took up his duties in October. Sarawak has many advantages: the Malays are good farmers and producers of jungle crops; the Chinese have helped to

make the country prosperous by their business skill. It has valuable timber, mineral oil, and gold. Sago and pepper used to be its chief exports; to these are added rubber as well as oil and gold. Most of the trade of British North Borneo and Sarawak goes through Singapore and Hong Kong.

CHAPTER IV

THE WEST INDIES, BERMUDA, BRITISH GUIANA, BRITISH HONDURAS, THE FALKLANDS AND SOUTH GEORGIA

THE WEST INDIES

LOOK at the map for the West Indies between North and South America. They lie in groups across the very deep waters of the Caribbean Sea. Here at Watling Island Christopher Columbus landed in October 1492, believing that he had reached India. The Spaniards were the first in all this part of the world, since when the real natives—Arawaks and Caribs—have almost entirely disappeared. The ‘natives’ to-day are descendants of Negroes first brought over as slaves from West Africa. Included in the West Indies are the swampy coastal territories of British Guiana, and British Honduras with its mahogany forests. The Caribbean Sea is the key to two great oceans, the Atlantic and Pacific. The islands of the Caribbean command the air and sea routes between Europe, Africa, and America, and the Atlantic approaches to the Panama Canal.

The West Indies are Colonies, but well on their way to complete self-government. In each colony there is a Governor, who is responsible to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. This Secretary is responsible to the British Parliament for the development and welfare of the Colonies, and the people of Britain,

through their Parliament, have their responsibility to see that this work goes steadily ahead.

In the Colonies the laws are passed by a Legislature something like our Parliament. The Governor is helped by a body of officials, most of them locally born.

There was a time when the West Indies grew nearly all the sugar used in Europe; in those days they were 'the sugar colonies,' and sugar brought them great prosperity. Then other parts of the world began to produce sugar, both from cane and from beet, and the West Indies found their sugar less easy to sell and their living more difficult to get. Another great blow to their prosperity was the abolition of slavery in all lands belonging to Britain. You will read about the slave trade as you visit the different islands. First we will go to Jamaica.

Jamaica. Jamaica is a lovely island of richly wooded land, mountains, valleys, and streams. Most beautiful of all is its seashore, with glorious lagoons, coral reefs, and white, palm-fringed sands.

Jamaica was first used by the Spanish as a place of supply for their ships. It came into British possession by chance. It was seized in 1655 by two of Cromwell's admirals who had been told to take possession of a Spanish island in the Caribbean Sea to help British trade. British settlers soon began to colonize it. Some came from the Puritan colonies of North America, but most from the British Isles. Within a few years there were more than a hundred factories at work on sugar, cocoa, and indigo. Many African slaves worked on the estates, for Jamaica was one of the great slave markets of the Western world. Sugar soon became

the most popular crop, because it could be cultivated on huge plantations by gangs of Negroes.

The sugar industry suffered when Great Britain, influenced by William Wilberforce and his friends, stopped British ships from carrying on the slave trade in 1807, and in 1833 set free all slaves in the British Empire.

When once Britain made up her mind to stop the slave trade the other European countries were soon led to do the same. She was supreme on the sea, and no Power could dispute her determination to stop this wicked trade for long.

The sugar-planters were paid by the British Government for the loss of their slaves. With this money it was thought they could pay the Negroes to work for them. But the freed slaves did not want to work on the plantations for wages. They thought freedom from slavery meant freedom from work. Thus there was great shortage of labour. To make matters worse, some countries, like Cuba and Brazil, still kept their slaves for some time after those in Jamaica were freed. Thus they could produce their sugar very cheaply and find a ready market.

So Jamaica became a poor country, with hundreds of out-of-work Negroes. Here was need for British enterprise. Jamaica had to produce something that would sell better than sugar, and the answer was bananas!

It was an Englishman, Sir Alfred Jones, who brought the banana to the United Kingdom. He showed how it could be safely and cheaply transported. Joseph Chamberlain when Secretary of State for the Colonies granted sums of money to steamships bringing bananas from the British West Indies; this played a big part

in the establishing of the industry. Before the Second World War Jamaica exported to Britain, Europe, and North America more than twenty-five million bunches of bananas annually. Other fruits were exported—

oranges, tangerines, grapefruit, limes—but none of these fruits compared with the banana trade.

Jamaica's trade has suffered through the War of 1914-18. She has a huge Negro population which tends to increase. Although many Negroes have small-holdings of their own and banana plantations, they tend to work on them fitfully. They like best of all to flock to the towns. Many, of course, work on plantations owned by Europeans, but these planters are neither so numerous



BRINGING IN BUNCHES OF
BANANAS, JAMAICA

*By courtesy of the Imperial Institute,
London*

nor so prosperous as in the past. Quite a number of Negroes are out of work or work only half-time because they do not want to work. The climate is warm, food is easily grown and obtained, so poverty does not matter a great deal. There is no need to work hard.

Sugar is still exported, but it is grown by companies who get the money (capital) for working the plantations

from sources outside Jamaica. Bananas are still the chief crop, and citrus fruits are grown. There are some small, prosperous cocoa farms, coffee plantations, and on the Blue Mountains there are coconut-palms.

There are some fine towns in Jamaica: Kingston,



NEGRO HUT IN THE INTERIOR, JAMAICA

By courtesy of the West India Committee

the main port and capital, Montego Bay, a tourist resort, and Spanish Town, which reminds us of the long-ago days when the Spaniards occupied the island. Most of the villages consist of a compact collection of wooden huts, a rum-shop (perhaps you have heard of Jamaica rum made from sugar), and a general store, kept as a rule by a Chinese. Look at the picture above of a Negro hut in the interior.

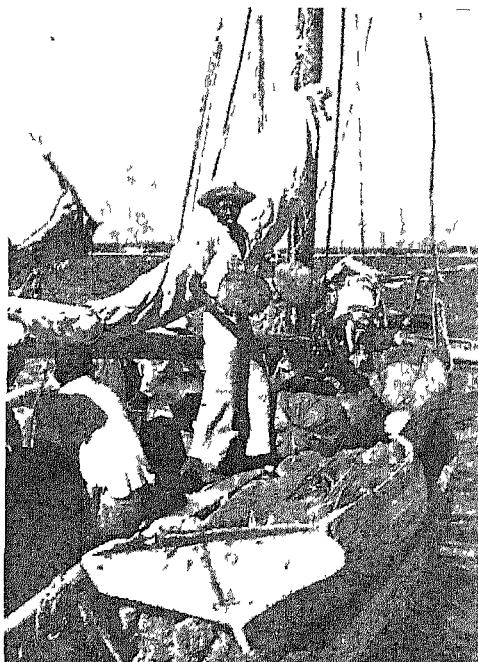
Many tourists come to Jamaica because of its lovely

mountains and streams and seashore. These help to bring money to the country. The lovely Cayman Islands, the Turks and Caicos Islands, are dependencies of Jamaica.

Although Jamaica is very near to self-government—every grown-up citizen has a right to vote for a Member of Parliament—yet she is not able to support herself; she needs money and ideas from Britain. Fortunately some of the leading citizens of Jamaica, many of whom are men of colour, are men of vigour and ability. Jamaica's ties with the British Isles, especially the tie of kingship, are close and of long duration. Across the ocean there has been a constant flow backward and forward of men, ideas, and goods. The future may make Jamaica and Britain still more helpful to each other. Britain needs food from Jamaica; Jamaica needs British money.

The Bahamas, where Columbus first landed on San Salvador (Watling Island) in 1492, are a long, straggling group of almost countless islands and islets, some of them less than fifty miles from Florida (U.S.A.). From the middle of the sixteenth century adventurous Britons began to make their homes there. The first settlers were seamen and fishermen, many were pirates who robbed Spanish treasure-ships. The islands were useful to Britain as a place of repair for lawful trading vessels and as a naval base from which to attack Spanish ships in time of war. Ships were often wrecked on the many coral reefs and rocks, and some settlers grew rich on the plunder from these wrecks; a few even tried to cause wrecks. The Government stopped this by building a chain of lighthouses. One of the finest lighthouses is on

Great Inagua. But the reefs, the innumerable islets and rocks, with their uneven coast lines and secluded creeks, were a favourite haunt of pirates and buccaneers, so called because they cooked their meat on a wooden



UNLOADING SPONGES AT NASSAU, BAHAMAS

By courtesy of the Bahamas Government Information Bureau

grid-iron known as a boucan. There were never any plantations in these islands as in the West Indies. Indeed, the colony of Bahamas does not like to be classified with the West Indies.

To-day the richest island is small New Providence. Its capital, Nassau, is a city of flowers with its gay

gardens. It is rich because of the American tourists who come to it for rest, fresh air, yachting, and the safe bathing behind the coral reefs in crystal-clear water. There are many fine hotels and lovely houses. The two airfields on New Providence link the Bahamas with the outside world.

The rest of the many islands, called the 'Out Islands,' are far less important; the largest are Andros, famous for its colony of flamingos, Grand Bahama, Eleuthera, and Great Inagua. The scanty population, mostly Negroes, are grouped in scattered settlements near the shores; they do a little fishing and farming. Only a few products are exported, such as salt and tomatoes to Canada; scale fish, crawfish, straw work, and jewellery made of small sea-shells to the U.S.A. Some sisal is grown, and as a few islands are well stocked with timber wood-cutting goes on. The main occupation used to be sponge-fishing, but the grounds have had to be closed for the present owing to some serious disease.

Barbados. Barbados is among the oldest of the British colonies and the most easterly of the West Indies. It is the first port of call for ships from England. The first settlers came from the British Isles early in the seventeenth century and found the island uninhabited. No foreigners have ever invaded the island. It has been aptly named 'Little England,' because its traditions are wholly English. All the inhabitants, white, coloured, and Negro alike, feel that they are British.

Barbados is a sugar island; every acre of land is used, and there are innumerable small plantations. When the slaves were freed in Barbados the Negroes

did not leave their plantations, but went on working on them. Perhaps because the owners lived on their estates, and the Negroes liked the owners. It was overseers that often ill-treated slaves. Then, again, there were fewer towns. So Barbados still remains a



CANE-CUTTERS, BARBADOS

By courtesy of G. Gibbs Weatherhead, Esq.

sugar island, and its prosperity depends upon the price of sugar.

For years Barbados has been governed by the sugar-planters and a colonial Parliament consisting of two houses.

The Leeward and the Windward Islands. West of Barbados, spread out in a crescent, are the Leeward and the Windward Islands. They played a big part in British sea history, particularly in Nelson's days.

The Leeward Islands are many in number, but small: Antigua, St Christopher, Montserrat, the Virgin Islands, and Nevis. They are sugar islands and at present poor. Like the other sugar islands, they suffered from the freeing of the slaves and the growing of sugar-cane and sugar-beet by other countries. Sugar is still grown, but the Negroes do not give the necessary amount of work to make it a success, although many of them have plantations of their own. Great Britain has to think of plans to make the Negroes into a vigorous farming community. It is a difficult problem.

The Windward Islands are fewer in number. Grenada is famous for its nutmeg forests, and exports nutmeg and cocoa; St Vincent supplies the whole world with arrowroot, and exports some sea cotton; St Lucia still exports sugar and citrus fruit; Dominica exports limes. These islands are among the loveliest of the West Indies; they have majestic volcanic mountains clad with unexplored dark forests. Down the mountain slopes and through the valleys flow winding streams. Along the few roadways only an occasional village breaks the forest scenery. The village is often a few weatherbeaten wooden houses nestling round a tiny church. Probably it is silent and still, for the village folk are working in the fields. These islands need Britain's help if they are to become prosperous, and she has been making plans to help them.

Trinidad and Tobago. Trinidad became British only in 1802. It was obtained from the Spanish by the Treaty of Amiens. There are descendants of the French and the Spanish on the island, and many Indians from India who have taken the place of the freed Negroes. These Indians worked hard (you

remember the hard-working Indian Tamils in Ceylon and Malaya), and soon had farms of their own to cultivate. The freed Negroes drifted to the towns and formed the poorer class there. Trinidad is quite different from many of the other West Indian Islands.



THE VILLAGE OF SANS SOUCI, NORTH COAST, TRINIDAD

By courtesy of the Trinidad and Tobago Tourist Board

It is prosperous and self-supporting. Sugar is still successfully cultivated, and the island possesses the largest sugar factory in the Colonies. Another important crop is cocoa. Besides these two main crops, sugar and cocoa, there are coconuts and citrus fruit.

In the early years of the twentieth century a new industry began when oil was discovered. Companies were formed to work the oilfield, for expensive machinery was needed; experts came from Britain, money flowed into the country, and Trinidad became the

largest producer of petroleum in the Empire. Besides petroleum she has another source of wealth in her wonderful pitch lake. This pitch is exported to make asphalt.

We must not forget that Trinidad and its neighbour,



AT WORK ON THE FAMOUS PITCH LAKE, SIXTY MILES
FROM PORT-OF-SPAIN, TRINIDAD

The lake is 114 acres in area and 285 feet deep in the centre.

By courtesy of the Trinidad and Tobago Tourist Board

Tobago, the land of the humming-bird—Robinson Crusoe's island—are lovely islands. Near them are other lovely little islands—for example, 'Bird of Paradise Island.' A launch service from Port-of-Spain, Trinidad's fine capital, takes visitors to the outlying small islands. Both Trinidad and Tobago welcome visitors, for they help to make them more prosperous.

Trinidad has developed rapidly, and her progress has brought her closer to Great Britain, who has often

lent her money (capital) to help her new undertakings. In spite of a mixed population—people of African, French, and Spanish descent, Negroes, Indians (Tamilis from Southern India and others), with a minority of Chinese, Syrians, etc.—it is the English language and British customs that prevail in Trinidad, and the loyalty of the people is to the British King. The Trinidadians play cricket and football with great success.

BERMUDA

These are among the most interesting of all the British islands in the West. They are outside the West Indies altogether and in the Atlantic Ocean.

Bermuda ought really to be called the Bermudas, for it is a cluster of 360 small islands, 20 of which are inhabited. These islands are very close together and almost touch; they are surrounded with sandbanks and coral reefs.

Bermuda was settled by Englishmen early in the seventeenth century. There were no inhabitants to welcome them or drive them away. From the first Bermuda had to be on guard against the Spaniards, and was a fortress as well as a colony. During the wars with Napoleon Bermuda was made a regular fortress and naval base in the Atlantic. The naval base, dockyard, and military garrison still remain, because of Bermuda's important position in the Atlantic. To-day she has been chosen by the United States for one of the bases in the defence system of the Western Hemisphere. This means she has to give up some of her precious acres, but she is glad to do it, for she is helping to defend the Commonwealth.

The people of Bermuda do not like to be associated with the West Indies. The islands on which they first

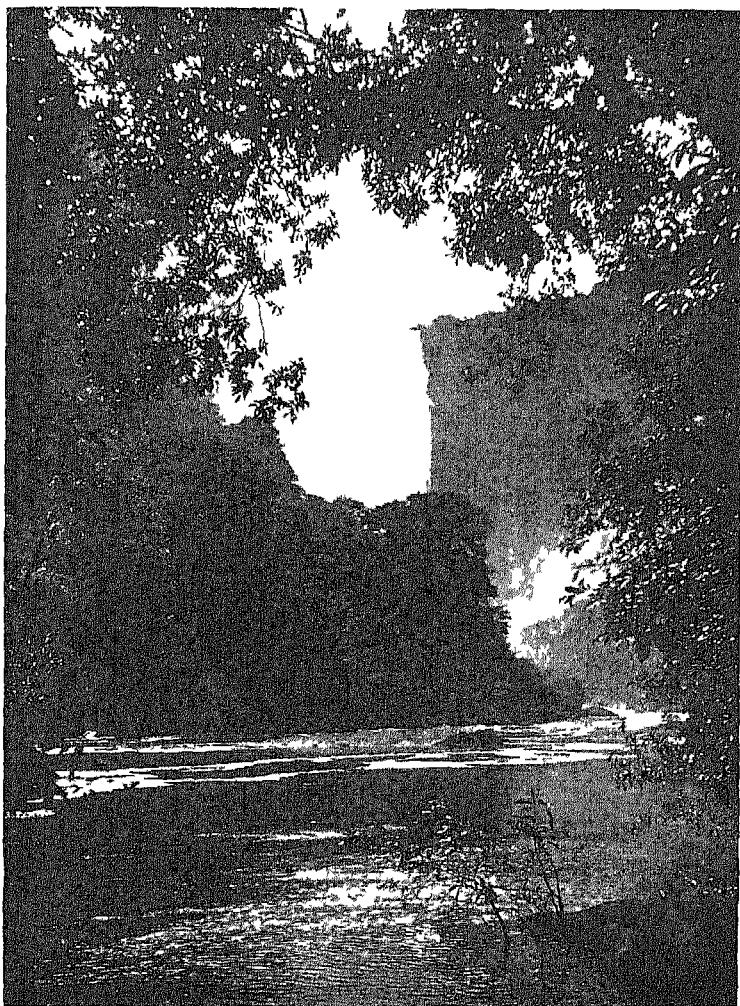
landed were no tropical islands that could easily be changed into great sugar plantations. For their living the first settlers had to take to the sea. They became shipbuilders and sailors. They carried the goods of other men across the sea between America and the West Indies. They are a fine example of British enterprise, for they sailed far south of their island home to Turks Island, where they could rake salt. This they carried to American ports and exchanged for goods they needed in their island. They became a very sturdy people, proud of their English origin and their independence. From the first they had a large measure of self-government, for they had a colonial Parliament.

More prosperous days arrived with the steamship and aeroplane. Bermuda became a popular resort for American tourists. It is near the United States; it has a perfect winter climate, beautiful beaches, harbours to shelter trim yachts, woodlands, meadows, and flowers. Many hotels have been built and golf courses laid out. Quite a number of Americans make Bermuda a permanent winter home. Visitors also come from Canada.

The money obtained from these visitors means that every one lives in comfort in Bermuda—Negroes, coloured people, and white. There are practically no mean dwellings. Bermuda is kept in touch with Britain through the naval base and the succession of regiments of the British Army that are stationed there.

BRITISH GUIANA

Near to Trinidad is the only British possession on the South American mainland, British Guiana. It is larger than England, Scotland, and Wales, and unexplored. This great country has districts rich with



BRITISH GUIANA: THE KAIETEUR FALLS, ON THE POTARO RIVER,
IN THE CENTRE OF THE COLONY

Photo Exclusive News Agency

gold and diamonds and bauxite (the ore from which aluminium is obtained), great forests of valuable hard-woods, fertile coastal plains, cattle ranches on rolling grasslands near the borders of Brazil, and reserves where Arawak Indians, the descendants of the West Indians of the days of Columbus, still live as in those long-past days. There is, too, a network of mighty rivers and innumerable creeks, winding through the forest at every turn, and one of the most wonderful waterfalls in the world—Kaieteur.

Dutch, British, and French colonists settled on the coast. On the map you can see to-day British Guiana, Dutch Guiana, and French Guiana. These countries date from the seventeenth century. The settlers grew sugar and had Negro slaves as the planters of the West Indies had. Demerara is brown sugar called after the river Demerara, in Guiana. In the second half of the eighteenth century the colonists were disturbed by turbulent slaves and unrest caused by the Napoleonic wars, which put British, French, and Dutch in power at different times. British Guiana was finally ceded to Britain by treaty at the end of the Napoleonic wars. The end of the slave trade and the freeing of the slaves led to the coming of the Indians from the east. The freed Negroes, you remember, did not want to work on the plantations. The Indians were good workers, and many of them soon had prosperous farms of their own and grew rice. The Negroes drifted to the towns.

Around the coast where the country is flat there are sugar plantations, rice-fields, and compact villages. In the cultivated parts many canals and waterways have been made, both for drainage and for carrying the crops in heavy iron punts over the flat countryside, where timber is scarce except for clumps of low, bushy trees.

Inland the ground slopes upward. Enormous forests appear, broken only by the mountains or the sloping grasslands.

Because of the great forests the easiest way to explore



SQUARING GREEN-HEART LOG, BRITISH GUIANA

*Central Office of Information, London
Crown copyright reserved*

the country is by river. Many of the mining towns are on river banks. In the picture at page 105 you can see the great waterfall.

It will be interesting to follow the story of British Guiana in the future. Will more land be cultivated

and more sugar, rice, and food crops grown? Will the great empty grasslands of the interior near Brazil be used for cattle-breeding? Perhaps more timber in its immense forests will be cut and sold, but this is difficult and expensive work. It is expensive work carrying heavy timber. Will its mineral wealth be developed? What do you think? It needs, as you can guess, many more adventurous, hard-working people. Three-quarters of the country is untouched, and it is the least populated of all British territory except British Somaliland.

Most of the people in British Guiana are Negroes and East Indians, two very different races. Perhaps in time, when British Guiana has self-government, the two races may develop a sense of common citizenship and build up a united country.

BRITISH HONDURAS

British Honduras is in Central America. It is about the size of Wales. In this colony life is very difficult, for the land is almost unbroken forests. The forests rise from one river bank, stretch over hills and mountains down to the next river bank. These wonderful forests, thick with undergrowth and over-growth, are the homes of millions of insects that are a worry to man and beast.

Only here and there on the coast or by a riverside clearing are there any signs of human beings. There are two main riverside settlements, and three on the coast, where most of the population live. Belize, on the river Belize, is the capital and chief port. An airport has made this town less isolated from the rest of the world. There are few roads, and men travel

mostly in the saddle on horses or mules, or by boats on the rivers that unite the interior with the coast.

The brave people who first made homes in this wild, forbidding land were a party of British adventurers, perhaps from Jamaica. They landed about 1638. Finding abundant supplies of logwood, then much in demand for the manufacture of dyes in Europe, they began a settlement near a river mouth, Belize river. In those days Spain claimed all this land, but the settlers had various treaties from Spain giving them the right to cut and sell timber and live in the houses they had built. In spite of these treaties, they were frequently attacked by the Spaniards. To meet these attacks they had to rely on themselves and their Negro slaves, to whom they gave arms. Once, when there was war between Britain and Spain, these brave settlers were nearly wiped out, but others came to take their place. Perhaps it was because Negroes and Britons faced a common danger, and fought together against a common foe, that the relationship between the two races has been very happy in Honduras.

The settlers also appealed to their nearest British neighbours in Jamaica for help, and for a time British Honduras was a dependency of Jamaica, but in 1884 it became a self-contained Colony, with its own Governor and Parliament.

In 1789, when they attacked the settlers, the Spaniards got such a severe beating that they never troubled the little colony again. The settlers showed great enterprise in trying to cultivate the land under difficult conditions. They grow food crops so that they need not depend too much on imported food. For export they have grown bananas (often ruined by plant disease). There are sugar plantations in the

north, and citrus fruit is grown, especially grapefruit. But the real wealth of British Honduras lies in its forests. In Victorian days, when mahogany furniture was in fashion, much mahogany was exported, but now it is too heavy for modern flats. However, mahogany is said to be a favourite wood for aeroplane propellers. There are also many trees that produce the gum chicle, from which chewing-gum is made. The population is mainly of African descent, but there are some East Indians and Caribs.

THE FALKLANDS AND SOUTH GEORGIA

For the last British island in the West we must go to the extreme south of the South American continent. Here in the Atlantic Ocean we shall find the most remote of all British colonies, the Falkland Islands. These are two large islands, the East and West Falklands. With the Falklands goes South Georgia and other small islands in Antarctica. There is a big whaling station manned by 350 men on the shores of South Georgia. The barrels of whale-oil and by-products of whaling that come from these islands are of great value to Britain, so that these islands ought not to be forgotten, as they sometimes tend to be. The other main industry is sheep-farming. The sheep grow hardy fleeces in the bleak climate, and produce a valuable wool. This is also exported to Britain. The people are mainly British and Scandinavian; many of the settlers must have come from Scotland as their English has a marked Scottish accent. Nearly every one in the Falklands rides on ponies and burns peat fuel.

It is the Crown, we must remember, that links all these scattered islands together, and thus gives their

people more interest and purpose in life than if they were completely isolated units. The West Indies in particular have always been noted for the loyalty of their people to the Crown. It is a loyalty that rests on appreciation of the British form of government. In accepting the King as their king they are accepting a democratic form of government.

CHAPTER V

MORE SCATTERED ISLAND COLONIES AND OUTPOSTS

ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN

FROM the Falklands, mentioned in the last chapter, we can explore the Atlantic, and, sailing northward, find other islands. These islands are some of the smallest parts of the British Commonwealth.

St Helena, about 1200 miles west of Africa, is well known as the place of Napoleon's exile. In the days of sailing-ships it was an important station on the route round the Cape; as many as 1400 sailing-ships used to call in a year, but steam and the Suez Canal changed everything. It is no longer a garrison centre or a port. In size it is very much smaller than the smallest of English counties; some 4000 people live upon it, mainly Europeans.

The land is in the hands of a few big farmers who are also mill-owners; they grow New Zealand hemp (hemp-flax), used for making rope, and in their mills prepare it for sale. This is their only important export. A great variety of plants and flowering shrubs grows on the island; oak-trees, for example, are mixed with bamboos and bananas.

Ascension Island is not much smaller, but it has only 130 people. They share the island with the wild goats, rabbits, partridges, and other birds; giant sea-

turtles lay their eggs in the sand every year. During the Second World War the U.S.A. made an airfield on it, so that aircraft could fly by way of Brazil to West Africa, and thence to Egypt in a series of hops.

Yet more remote, half-way between the Cape and South America, are **Tristan da Cunha**, **Gough's Island**, and **Inaccessible** and **Nightingale Islands**; some of the inhabitants are descendants of shipwrecked sailors and of the soldiers (the remains of the garrison at St Helena) who settled there after the Napoleonic wars. All these little islands are dependencies of St Helena. Tristan is no longer such a lonely island. In 1942 a meteorological and radio station was set up there, and it received a new name—H.M.S. Atlantic Isle.

OUTPOSTS AND ISLANDS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

Gibraltar is the strangest part of the British Colonial Empire. In A.D. 711 a band of Moors (Arabs) who wanted to conquer Spain took possession of the famous Rock and built a strong castle on it (see map at page 115). Their leader was called Tarik, and they named the place Gebel Tarik (which means 'Tarik's Hill [or Rock]'); this was the origin of the name 'Gibraltar.' In 1462 the Rock passed into the hands of the Spaniards, who held it until 1713, when it was given by treaty to Britain. Many attempts were made to retake it, but it was too strong a fortress. To-day, in spite of modern methods of warfare, its position makes it one of the most valuable naval stations; it is a key fortress on one of the great sea-routes of the world.

Look at the little map of Gibraltar, and you will see what the Great Rock is like. It is two and a half

miles long. At its north end it is very steep, rising straight up from the strip of flat, sandy ground that connects it with the Spanish mainland. The eastern side is the steepest. It is so steep that Catalan Bay, where a few fishermen live, can be approached only from the north or by a tunnel from the docks on the west. There are many natural caves and fissures in the great Rock. These add greatly to its value as a fortress. They form natural storehouses and gun emplacements. They have been increased and improved by quarrying and tunnelling, until the whole Rock is honeycombed with safe refuges and hidden lines of communication.

The heaviest guns, instead of being at or near sea-level, are now on the crest-line of the Rock.

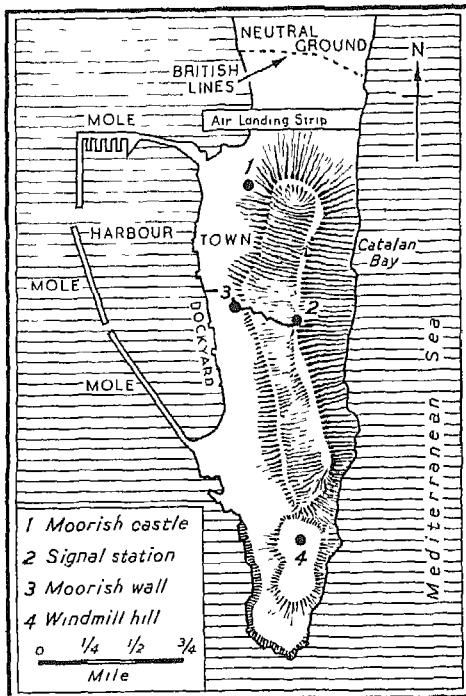
Find the town, dockyards, wharfs, and fine enclosed harbour on the map. They are on the west side. The town occupies only a small part of the Rock. It is very compact, and little of it is on a level, the houses rising one behind the other. They stop when the Rock is too steep. On the upper part of the Rock live the Barbary apes. There are not nearly as many as there used to be.

There are two distinct sets of people living in Gibraltar: (a) the British military garrison, consisting of British regiments, stationed there for definite periods, and (b) the Gibraltarians, townsfolk and shopkeepers.

When one regiment is due to return home another comes out. Gibraltar is as closely connected with the British Army as Aldershot is or Chatham.

The townsfolk are mainly Europeans, although Spanish is spoken (not the pure Spanish of Spain); some of the people are Genoese or Maltese by descent. Then there are many Jews, and some Indian merchants

who sell silk and curios. Besides the two classes of people mentioned above there are thousands of people coming and going all the time—officers and seamen



GIBRALTAR

from the many naval and merchant ships that are always stopping at Gibraltar, as well as passengers from ocean liners. Visitors crowd the well-stocked shops.

Gibraltar is one of the great shipping centres of the world. But it has other business as well. Ships of

many nations stop there for fuel and supplies—ships of all kinds, both naval and merchant ships. It is also a centre for the re-export of goods to North Africa. There is only one manufacture in Gibraltar, the manufacture of tobacco from imported leaves.

You can find out a good deal more about Gibraltar by studying the map.

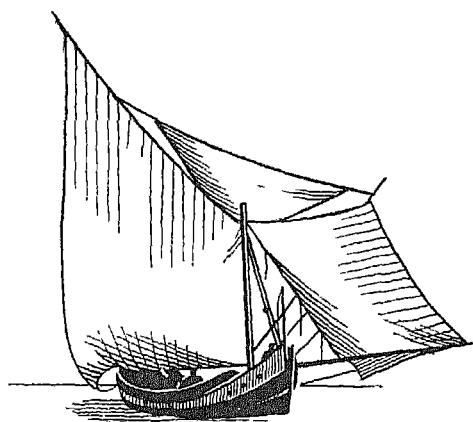
Malta. The Maltese group of islands lie in the Central Mediterranean between Sicily and North Africa. Malta is the main island; Gozo, the second island, is only about a quarter as big. The third island, Comino, is just a tiny islet.

Malta is a fortress island, and was world-famous during the Second World War.

The people are perhaps the descendants of the Phoenicians of long ago, for they are like them in language and appearance. Throughout the ages Malta has had many different rulers—Greeks, Romans, Arabs, Normans, and others. St Paul was shipwrecked on this island when the Romans ruled it. In the sixteenth century Malta was occupied by the Knights of St John, whose mission it was to help sick and poor pilgrims to Jerusalem. It remained in the hands of the Knights until 1798, when an event occurred that brought Malta under the British flag—the Grand Master of the Knights surrendered the island to Napoleon. But the inhabitants did not want to be ruled by the French. With the help of the British Navy they fought and defeated them. After this victory they wished to be under British rule. When in 1814 Malta was ceded to Great Britain by treaty the Maltese celebrated the event by placing a Latin inscription in the principal square. In English it reads: “The affection of the

Maltese people and the voice of Europe confide these islands to the care of great and invincible Britain."

The Maltese people showed the same affection for and confidence in Great Britain during the Second World War as they had done in the past. They remained true to Britain in spite of terrible hardships.



MALTESE GOZO BOAT

The farmers bravely refused to abandon their fields and gardens, even under the continuous rain of bombs that fell upon them, month after month. Men and women in the towns and dockyards showed the same wonderful courage. Because of the faithfulness and bravery of the whole island during this terrible war it was awarded the well-deserved George Cross by the King in 1942.

Malta is an island of sunshine and history. Many tourists go there because of the blue sky, blue sea, and mild weather. Her grand harbour, Valletta, is one of the finest and most secure ports in the Mediterranean.

Among the most attractive sights in the harbour are the gaily painted boats (see picture at page 117); their symmetry and colouring tell of years of culture. Valletta itself is a lovely city, and every stone has a thrilling tale to tell. The picture below shows one of Malta's lovely bays.



MALTA: ST GEORGE'S BAY FROM VILLA ROSA

By courtesy of "The Times of Malta"

The Maltese work hard to cultivate their islands, for there is not a great deal of fertile soil; everywhere there seem to be glittering white rocks. The people grow wheat, barley, and vegetables for their own use. There are some vineyards and orchards of oranges and lemons. There are not many trees in the island, and, owing to strong winds, the crops have to be protected by many high stone walls that make the countryside look like a great stone quarry.

Cotton is grown for making homespun and for lace-making, for which the Maltese women are famous.

They do their work out of doors. The children, like British children, go to free Government schools, but they learn their lessons in their own ancient language, which is not Italian, as many people think.

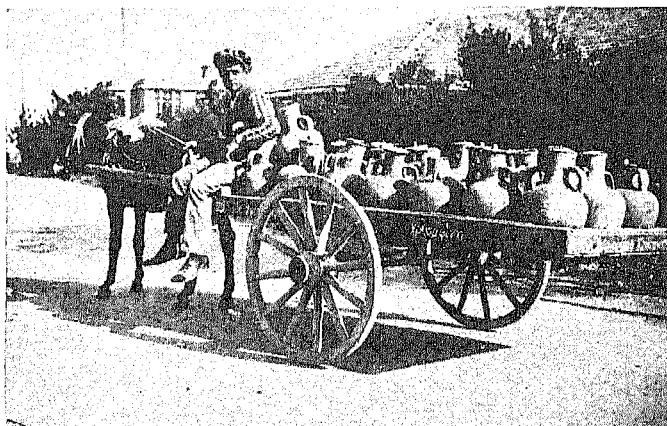
Cyprus. Cyprus is another island with a very old history. Look for it on the map. It is near three continents—Europe, Asia, and Africa, so you can guess it has had many invaders. Both Greeks and Phoenicians settled there at a very early date. Richard I took possession of it during the Third Crusade. But it was not long in his hands; he sold it to the Knights Templars, the knights who defended pilgrims on their way to Jerusalem. They were called Templars because their first dwelling was on the site of Solomon's Temple.

In 1571 it was conquered by the Sultan of Turkey, and fared badly for some three hundred years under Turkish rule. Then, through an agreement with Turkey in 1878, the British took charge of it—a neglected island, far from prosperous. It finally became part of the British Empire when Turkey entered the Great War in 1914.

Cyprus is a lovely island with mountain ranges, plains, and forests. Although two rivers cross the plain from west to east, they are dry for the greater part of the year. Apart from these rivers there are only small streams in the hills, and torrents falling from the mountains in the winter months. Cyprus is therefore short of water. In the picture at page 120 you can see a water-carrier. Although the climate of Cyprus is dry and water scarce, it is not unhealthy. Britain has done much to check and cure illness both among people and among animals.

There are some minerals in Cyprus, and copper and

asbestos are mined there, but most of the people are farmers, who live in quaint old villages. The houses are flat-roofed and mud-coloured; in fields near by oxen plough the soil or thresh the corn. Along the roads, which are well planned, oxen pull the carts; and mules, donkeys, and even camels carry packs and



CYPRUS: A WATER-CARRIER

Photo Mangoian Brothers, Nicosia

riders. There are no steam-engines or motors yet to oust the beasts of burden. The villages are made gay by the dress of the peasants—gaudy tunics, baggy breeches, and top-boots. The village coffee-shop is always a place for merry talk and gossip.

There are three languages spoken—modern Greek by the Cypriot Greeks, Turkish by the Turks—for about one-fifth of the people are Turks—and English; but the principal language is modern Greek, for the greater number of people are Greeks. English, however, continues to spread.

The Greeks and the Turks in Cyprus keep quite

apart. They live in separate villages or separate parts of the same village or town. Mosque and church in town and village are the signs of two different peoples who do not mingle.



A CYPRIOT SHEPHERD
Photo Mangoian Brothers, Nicosia

The village folk grow a great variety of crops; there are vineyards, cereal crops (especially barley), olive groves, fruit orchards (citrus fruits, especially), tobacco fields, vegetable gardens. The principal crop, however, of the island is carobs, which are used to make cattle food. Carobs, or carob beans, are the fruit of the carob-tree or locust-tree. This tree grows wild in

Cyprus, but the best fruit comes from the cultivated trees. The fruit is a pod containing from six to ten hard seeds. Carobs are exported to many places. Great Britain has helped Cyprus with its agriculture; for example, the British Agricultural Department in Cyprus has shown farmers how to protect the vine against disease and advised them in other matters. Cattle are kept for drawing carts and ploughs. There is no demand for beef or for cow's milk in the island. But there are large numbers of sheep and goats; the sheep provide excellent wool, and the goats milk. Look at the picture of the shepherd at page 121. He is dressed something like the Greek shepherds in Greece.

FARTHER EAST

Aden. Across the Red Sea from British Somaliland lies the colony and protectorate of Aden.

Aden has a long history, and has always been an important port from which goods brought overland could be shipped to India. The coming of the steamship and the opening of the Suez Canal increased its importance. It is the gateway to the Indian Ocean, and mounts guard over one of the world's great maritime highways. In some ways it is like Gibraltar, for it is a seaport, a fuelling station, and a fortress.

The people of Aden are chiefly town-dwellers, living either in the seaport known as Steamer Point or in the native town, some four miles away.

Behind Steamer Point tower great dark, volcanic rocks whose immense peaks make the buildings of the seaport look mean and shabby. Along the waterfront stretch warehouses, fuel-storage tanks, and coal-dumps.

A pitiless sun glares upon the rocks and sands of Aden; no rain falls; the land is barren. Along the



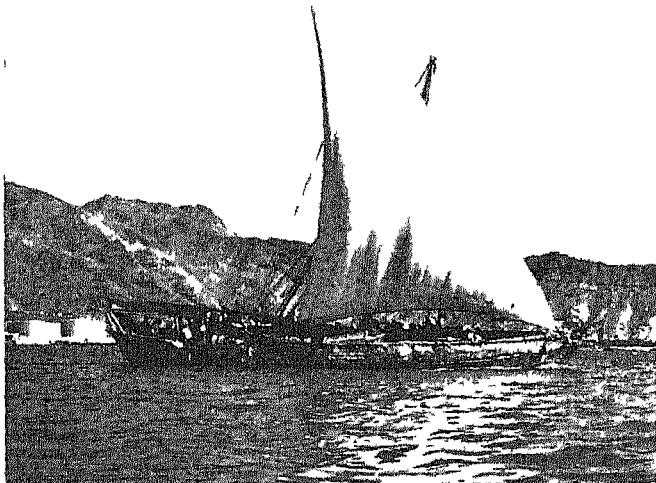
AN AERIAL VIEW OF ADEN
Photo Exclusive News Agency

shore from the seaport is a litter of timber and hulks where Arabs skilled in an old craft build the wooden sailing-ships known as dhows. Near by is an airfield—thus we have the very old and the new side by side—the centuries-old dhows and the modern aeroplane.

More easily seen, though farther from the sea-front, are the salt heaps, which look like a collection of tents in the bright sunshine. Salt is made at Aden by the evaporating of salt water. Prior to 1928 the domestic water-supply of Aden was almost entirely derived by the distillation of sea-water. Experimental boreholes were sunk and pumping plant installed. The water is pumped direct from the boreholes into reservoirs or tanks and gravitates through a 15-inch-diameter pipeline *seven* miles in length into the Isthmus, where it is pumped into service reservoirs and distributed to the various parts of the Colony by mains some twenty-six miles in length. The reservoirs or tanks in the Colony hold 2,850,000 gallons of water.

The native town is hidden from the sight of the seaport; it lies within the ring of gigantic rocks that make Aden a fortress. The inhabitants of both seaport and native town are mostly Arabs. In the port especially there is a great mixture of people—Jews, Syrians, Indians, town Arabs, Somalis, and Europeans. From seaward ships of every kind come to anchor off the waterfront. There is a perpetual bustle, for Aden, like Gibraltar, 'lives off ships.' But Aden is also the gateway of Arabia, and from Arabia come the desert dwellers with their camels and asses, to load or unload them at storehouse or market. Some of the goods brought for export are skins, hides, coffee, dates, and gum. The gum, from the desert bush-plants, is used for making incense. Much work is done at the port

in the cleansing and sorting of coffee and incense and in the grading of hides and skins. Incense is exported both east and west. Aden itself exports only salt.



ARAB DHOW OFF ADEN

Photo Paul Popper

Protectorate of Aden. Behind the port lies a wide strip of country, the protectorate of Aden, roughly the size of the United Kingdom. It has a long coastline; the beautiful island of Socotra is included in the protectorate, also the Kuria Muria Islands and the island of Kamaran.

It is a barren and difficult country, and some of the

tribes are among the wildest of the peoples under British control. Most of them live in towns or villages where there are fertile strips of land in valleys and ravines; fertile, cultivated strips also climb up the hillsides.

There are flat-roofed houses of stone on the hills and of bricks in the valleys. The whitewashed mosques tell us the people are Moslems; they are mostly of the Arab race, though a few have Negro blood, because of the Negroes brought to Arabia in the days of slavery.

Along the coast are many fishing villages and two ports—Mukalla Port, with tall white houses rising one behind the other up the foothills of a gloomy mountain, and Shahr, a walled city lying on the water's edge in the open desert. From these ports cereals, dates, and tobacco are shipped to Eastern markets, and many Arabs go eastward to seek their fortunes in the Far East—in Singapore or Java or other islands.

The rulers of the protectorates are sultans, who have British protection and are often helped by British loans. Britain has done much to stop the feuds and little wars among the sultans. Some of the sultans ask for British Residents to help them. In return for this help Britain has landing-grounds for aircraft. The country is policed by the Royal Air Force.

A sultan rules Socotra, which, if it had had a good harbour, might have rivalled Aden, for it has a good position at the mouth of the Gulf of Aden.

It was because of India that Britain held Aden, which at first was an outpost of the Government of Bombay. It was her connexion with India that made Britain so often hold an otherwise unlikely place.

ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

The Arabian Sea and the Indian Ocean, of which this sea is a part, contribute many islands to the Empire, some of them singularly beautiful. We can mention only a few here.

Mauritius was an empty island discovered by the Portuguese, but first successfully colonized by the French. It is about the same size as the county of Surrey. During the wars with Napoleon the value of Mauritius as an ocean base led to its capture by the British in 1810. It was then an island of large sugar plantations, on which worked Negro slaves. The French owners of the plantations were the descendants of French aristocrats. They were too far off to know what was happening in France, and probably were glad to be safe out of France during the French Revolution. When Britain promised they should enjoy their own laws, religion, and customs they settled down happily under British rule. They remind us of the French Canadians, who have lived happily under British rule.

When slavery was abolished workers were hired from India, so that to-day more than half the population of the island are Indians, the descendants of these workers. Many Indians now have plots of land of their own. The wealth of Mauritius still depends on sugar, but Britain has tried to help her to build up other industries. Another important activity is growing rice. Rice is a valuable food crop, and helps to make Mauritius self-supporting. Winter tourists would help Mauritius, but few people from Great Britain have money or leisure for such a long journey; tourists might perhaps be attracted from South Africa, which is much nearer.

The Seychelles, ninety-two little islands, were acquired by Britain from France at the same time as Mauritius. The principal island, Mahé, is visited by steamers from Bombay and Mombasa. These islands too are ideal for holidays, for those who can get to them. The people produce copra and oil seeds, and scents from the leaves grown and from the oils they distil. The people are mainly Europeans, with some Africans, Indians, and Chinese.

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are famous for their palms. They export copra.

Christmas Island is a lonely little island in the Indian Ocean, chiefly known as a wireless station. The people living on the island (over a thousand) have their intercourse with the rest of the world through Singapore. This island now forms part of the colony of Singapore.

STILL FARTHER EAST

Leaving the Indian Ocean and travelling eastward to the South China Sea, we come to Hong Kong.

Hong Kong, like Singapore, was 'nothing' until the British acquired it for a trading depot. It was ceded by China in 1841.

The colony of Hong Kong is made up of (a) a number of islands—though only the largest one is important—lying together near the mouth of the Canton river and (b) a small peninsula called Kowloon, separated from Hong Kong by a narrow strait. Small as the colony is, it is one of the most populated parts of the Colonial Empire, with more than a million people.

From a very small beginning Hong Kong prospered wonderfully. No one was disturbed by the British

occupation of this empty island—not even the few Chinese fishermen who were much given to piracy. Traders flocked there, sure of safety under the British flag. It became the main outlet for the produce of Southern China and a distributing centre for goods brought into China.

A fine harbour and waterfront were built, and the vast modern city of Victoria grew up. Victoria is often called Hong Kong, as it is the chief part of the island. Two races really made this city—the Europeans and the Chinese.

The massive buildings, wide esplanade, and parks are European; the crowded shops and bazaars are Chinese. Of all the great buildings in Hong Kong the two finest and most important are the University of Hong Kong and the new building of the Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation. The university is the only British university in the Far East. Many Chinese have been there, and learnt much from it. In a sense they helped to build it by their industrious work as shopkeepers and craftsmen—for their work helps to make Hong Kong prosperous.

The Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation made Hong Kong a most important centre of commerce. It has a great advantage over the other banks on the mainland—for example, Shanghai—because it is separated from the upheavals and civil wars of China.

At Kowloon there is another city, with its wharves and warehouses. An airport and railway connect the port of Hong Kong with Canton and with more distant Chinese cities. It has boulevards, blocks of flats, villas, shops, cinemas, factories, but quite suddenly modern buildings disappear, and there are the rice-

fields of China watered by simple village methods, market gardens, more rice-fields, green or golden, and pineapple plantations.

If you take a walk on the island of Hong Kong along the winding south coast you will find fishing villages once the abode of pirates and far older than the British colony. Here lie at anchor big fishing junks like those built in centuries gone by, and near this scene of long ago is a modern luxury hotel and golf course. The main primary product of Hong Kong is fish.

The success, then, of Hong Kong is the result of this working together of two very different peoples—Europeans and Chinese. It shows that race and politics need not make ill-feeling, although they often do to-day.

ISLANDS IN THE PACIFIC

There are many lovely islands in the Pacific Ocean, as in the Indian. These islands are above all the coconut-palm islands. The **Fiji Islands** are the best known. They were discovered by the Dutch and visited by Captain Cook, but at first few sailors cared to land on them, because the Fijians were such fierce fighters—and, worst of all, were cannibals!

In the nineteenth century there was a great demand in China for sandalwood, and traders began to risk the dangers of the Fiji Islands to get it. The Fiji chiefs found that the new weapons, firearms, helped them in their tribal fights, so they were willing to trade. Many of the white people who traded with the Fijis cared only for gain and plunder. They brought spirits as well as firearms, and then encouraged the natives to fight and eat one another. But some

of the traders were better men; and missionaries, both British and American, also went out. Although life was dangerous on the islands they stayed on. Many of the natives became Christians, and in 1854 the most powerful chieftain of the islands gave up cannibalism.



FIJI: A COASTAL VIEW

By courtesy of the Official Photographer of the Public Relations Office, Suva, Fiji

He found his position difficult. His own people continued to fight, and the wicked traders still brought firearms and captured slaves. He asked for the protection of Great Britain. His request speaks well for the British traders and the Britons on the Fiji Islands. But Great Britain was not eager to accept the task. Australia urged the British Government to agree, and the people at home urged the Government on behalf of the British settlers in Fiji, for there were

now many British settlers there. In 1874 Fiji became a British colony. There are some 250 islands; the Fijians live mainly on the two largest. They are lovely islands, with ranges of jagged mountains falling steeply into well-watered plains where grows much of the sugar that is exported, as well as the rice that is eaten by the inhabitants. There are palm-clad beaches sloping down to a sea smooth and calm because it is protected by coral reefs, against which the ocean breaks. There are many miles of coastline covered with trees down to the water's edge.

The villages are scattered along the coast, and inland often on river banks. The Fijians build neat one-storey thatched houses rectangular in shape. Some of the larger houses have roofs overlapping a veranda and supported by upright poles.

Between the islands and along the shores there are many sailing craft and motor-launches and much busy traffic. Coconuts are collected from many of the uninhabited islands, where often a trader or collector lives for a time. There is also a busy inland traffic over well-made roads.

Most of the white population are of Australian and New Zealand origin, and they look upon Fiji as their home—not merely as the country where they make money. The Fijians themselves have kept their tribal organization, and are ruled by chiefs who are paid by the Government. There is a British Governor at Fiji to help; he is also the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific. The Fijians are to-day a most peaceful and good-natured people. What makes the colony so contented is that the Indians (who first came to work in the sugar plantations) live happily with the Fijians. In some parts of the Empire—for

example, Ceylon—the Indians keep very much to themselves, but in Fiji they seem less conscious that they are a different race.

Besides sugar and rice, pineapples and bananas are grown; while the coconut-palms are a source of wealth. Gold is also mined on the two main islands. The Fijians have taken to gold-mining. They like it better than work on sugar plantations.

Australia, New Zealand, and Canada buy most of Fiji's exports, and Fiji buys most of the things she wants from Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. Of all the colonies Fiji stands nearest to the Member States, with three of which she is linked by trade, as mentioned above. Moreover, the colony's industry is largely built on capital (money) from these states. Fiji has now become an important key-point in the Pacific, as Bermuda has in the Atlantic. It will bring her more into contact with the outside world if she becomes a naval base.

Pitcairn. The romantic history of this island is well known. A young midshipman named Pitcairn on board H.M. sloop *Swallow*, sailing in the Pacific in 1767, first saw it and told his captain, Captain Carteret, about it. Carteret called it Pitcairn, and mentioned it in a book about his voyage of discovery. In 1790 a ship called the *Bounty* was cruising off one of the Tongan Islands. Every one knows how a mutiny broke out, and how the tyrannical captain, Captain Bligh, was set adrift with eighteen men in an open boat. He made his long voyage westward across the Pacific to the island of Timor without losing a man. Meanwhile the leader of the mutineers, Christian, sailed the *Bounty* eastward to Tahiti, where they settled.

Soon he thought Tahiti was not safe; they might be discovered. He remembered reading about the lonely island of Pitcairn in a book on the *Swallow*. Few ships went so far east. Some of the mutineers were so happy on lovely Tahiti with their native wives that they did not want to move. But Christian sailed eastward with about eight mutineers and some Tahitians, and at last came to lonely Pitcairn. For eighteen years they lived happily cut off from the world and safe from capture. But the misguided ones who remained at Tahiti were captured the year after their landing by the crew of H.M.S. *Pandora*, taken home, and duly executed at Spithead.

An American sealer discovered the secret of Pitcairn in 1808, but by this time the British Government was disposed to let the matter of the mutiny rest, and only interfered when the island became overpopulated. In 1832 some Pitcairners were transported to Tahiti, but they returned, and later some were taken to Norfolk Island, but again they returned. Some other little islands were added to Pitcairn, which is now under the control of the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific. About 200 people live on the island, mainly of European descent. Its fertile land yields plenty of oranges and pineapples for export.

Other interesting islands in the Pacific are the **British Solomon Islands**, the **Gilbert and Ellice Islands**, of which Ocean Island is famous for its phosphate, and the **Line Islands**, south of Christmas Island, and among which are Malden and Caroline.

The Tongan Islands. These islands are particularly interesting because they form a 'kingdom.' There are about 140 islands, of which 36 are inhabited.

Cook first wrote an account of Tonga and its people. He was so kindly received on the central island that he called it Friendly Island, and this name was applied to the whole group, though nowadays the group is usually spoken of as Tonga. The Tongans, unlike most of the other islanders, were never cannibals, and were the first to become Christians. They have their own Government, and are ruled by a king. There is a single 'House of Parliament.' The kingdom is a 'protected state'—that is, one that does not feel strong enough to protect itself from attack, and therefore seeks the protection of Great Britain, while continuing to be self-governing.

There are well over a hundred Government schools, and education is free. The ruler in 1948 was a queen. During the Second World War the Tongan royal family, as chief landowner, leased to the United Kingdom many acres of land for a great airfield. The rent asked for was one peppercorn, equal to one shilling, a year!

This kingdom produces mainly copra and bananas; it is interesting because it shows how capable the people are of governing themselves under wise and kindly direction.

CHAPTER VI

INDIA

THE PEOPLES OF INDIA

WE now come to a wonderful land, a land of many climates, a land of forests, jungles, deserts, mountains, plains, and swamps; a land of pines and palms. Because of the many types of climate all the fruits of the earth can be grown in India.

India is as large as Europe with Russia left out, and twenty times as big as the British Isles. It is a continent and not a country, for it is a land of different races, different languages, and different religions. Perhaps you know how many languages are spoken in Europe. If not, count the countries of Europe and see if you can find out. In India there are over 150 languages spoken, not counting dialects.

The word 'India' (a Greek word) means 'the land of the Indus.' It was the first part of India known to the people of the West—the Persians and Greeks. Later they gave the name of this part that they knew the best—India—to the whole country. In a sense there are no such people as Indians. There are Kashmiris, Punjabis, Rajputs, Bengalis, Marathas, Tamils or Madrassis, and others. Some of these national groups have won great names as warriors, like the Rajputs (of Rajputana), the Sikhs (of the Punjab and the United Provinces), the Marathas (of the Deccan). Others, like the Bengalis, are famous for the arts and crafts of peace, while the people of the

far South, the Tamils, were famous for commerce and trade at a very early age. Most of these peoples are so different in appearance that one cannot confuse them. It is easy to pick out a man from the North-west or the North-east or the South.

In the North-west, for example, the Punjab, are the fair-skinned, straight-haired, handsome people, the Punjabis. These proud, wheat-fed men of the North will tell you that the North breeds men and the South breeds monkeys, which is a way of saying that the Northern races are superior to the Southern.

The people of the South are very different from the people of the North. They are Dravidians (Tamils), rather short, with dark complexions and eyes, broad noses, and abundant dark hair. Their languages too are quite different from those of the North. There are four main languages spoken by the Dravidians in South India, one being Tamil. A good deal has been said about the Tamils in the preceding chapters because they have made homes in other parts of the Empire.

The Bengalis, although dark, are quite different from the Dravidians. Their heads are broader and more like those of the Mongols, or Moguls, narrow-eyed people of Central Asia. An ordinary man from the Punjab visiting Bengal or Madras cannot understand a word of the languages there. Any important notices that concern all the peoples of India must be issued in thirteen main languages. It is therefore more difficult for India to be a united country with a central Government than for a country like Australia, where one language is spoken.

Besides the peoples mentioned above there are in the hills and jungles of India a few primitive tribes, some of whom are as black as any Negroes.

THE INVASIONS OF INDIA

Now let us see how all these different races and tribes entered India. Look at a map. Notice the immense mountain barrier that shuts off India from the rest of Asia. Only in one corner, the North-west, are there passes through the mountains. The chief of these are the Khyber Pass, through which runs the road leading to Kabul, in Afghanistan, and the Bolan Pass, leading to Kandahar. It is through these passes that invader after invader came into the fertile valleys of the Punjab and beyond.

It will help you to understand the invasion if you notice that India can be divided into four regions: (1) North-western India, (2) Hindustan, (3) the Deccan, (4) Southern India.

(1) *North-western India*, the Punjab, is the Land of Five Rivers, the five rivers being the Indus and its four tributaries. The Punjab is bounded by mountains on the north and north-west.

(2) *Hindustan* is the land between the Himalayan Mountains, in the north, and the Vindhya Mountains and other mountains, in the south. It is separated from North-western India by the Thar or Indian Desert (also called the Rajputana Desert). It consists of vast, fertile plains watered by the Ganges and its tributaries. No wonder it tempted invaders. Mighty cities have sprung up on the banks of the Ganges, which was the chief waterway of this part of the country, and it was the seat of great empires.

(3) *The Deccan* lies south of the Vindhya and Satpura ranges, which follow the line of the Narbada river. The plateau (high flat land) of the Deccan is easily found on the map. It is wild, rugged country, but in

the centre is a wide, level plain of rich soil. There are, too, many flat-topped hills that make excellent forts; the warlike Marathas (a mixed race) were able to resist conquest because of these natural forts, with their jungle-covered sides.



THE KHYBER PASS

Photo Keystone

(4) *Southern India* lies south of the Deccan. It is the land of the Tamils. In the centre is the great mass of hills known as the Nilgiris or Blue Mountains; south of these mountains the country is flat and fertile. Unlike Hindustan, it has a long coastline, and its people often go across the sea to make homes in other lands, as you have read. From early times traders from the West came to its shores for spices—for example, the Dutch came to Calicut in 1498.

Descendants of the original inhabitants of India are still live in remote parts of India, in the hills and

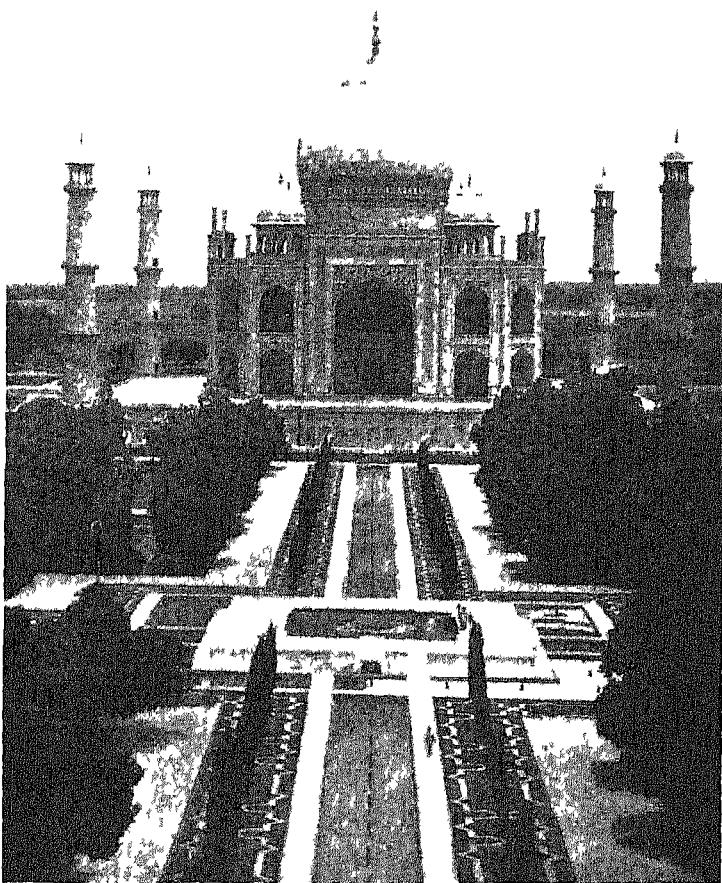
inaccessible jungles. They speak a dialect of their own and are still in a primitive state, such as the Santals west of Calcutta, the Khonds of the Orissa hills, and the Gonds of Central India.

At some period before history began the Dravidians entered India, and were settled there when later invasions took place.

The Invasions of the Indo-Aryans. The first people to enter India that history tells us about were the Indo-Aryans, the same race as the Indo-Europeans who peopled Europe. We think they came from the grassy lands stretching from the lower Danube eastward along the north side of the Black Sea and stretching far into Asia north and east of the Caspian Sea. One batch of Aryans turned into Persia. Persia to-day still keeps the old name Aryan, for 'Iran' is another form of 'Aryan.' Another batch, the Indo-Aryans, entered the Punjab. Like all the Indo-European race, they were fair-complexioned people with good features. They came as settlers, bringing their families, flocks, and herds. As more and more entered the fertile river valleys of the Indus numbers advanced eastward. We know a good deal about them from their poems known as the *Vedas*. The chief of an Aryan tribe was the *raja*, or ruler, and the *rajas* often fought one another.

The newcomers did not enter India unopposed. There were, as you have learnt, the dark Dravidians already living there. They were just as civilized as the Aryans, but the Aryans looked down upon them because of their dark skins. They called them *Dasyus*, or slaves.

The Aryans defeated the Dravidians and settled



THE TAJ MAHAL, AGRA

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for India

down in the fertile river valleys of the Ganges and its tributaries. This land between the Himalayas, in the north, and the Vindhya Mountains, to the south, became known as Hindustan. (The word *Hindu* comes from *Sandhu*, the old as well as the present Indian name for the Indus.) Hindustan is separated from the Indus valley, where the Aryans first settled, by the Thar Desert.

Some of the Dravidians stayed in Hindustan, and were the servants or slaves of the Aryans, but numbers may have gone to South India. To-day the land in the South is still the Dravidian country.

It was in Hindustan that the religion and way of life known as Hinduism developed. Religion permeates the whole life of the Hindu—his work, his habits, his food, and his contacts with other people through the *caste system*. The Hindus are divided into a great number of castes. A caste now consists of a group of families having the same occupation and *rules of life*; the members are bound to marry outside the family, but inside the group or caste.

Caste, strange to say, is a Portuguese word meaning 'purity of race.' The original idea of caste was that of colour (*varna*). The fair-skinned Aryans looked down upon the darker Dravidians, and did not want their people to intermarry with them. Then the Aryans themselves became divided into castes according to their occupations, for in those days occupations were hereditary, and were handed down from father to son. For example, the learned man—those who learned the Vedas by heart and explained them, or looked after the gods in the temples—belonged to the highest caste, the Brahmins, the offspring of the god Brahma. Next to them came the warrior caste, then

merchants, farmers, traders, shopkeepers, goldsmiths, weavers, potters, and so on. You will learn more about the castes and the religion of the Hindus later in this chapter where you visit some Indian villages and talk with workers there.

Although the Aryans never conquered the Dravidians of the South, they taught them Hinduism, so that Hinduism became supreme everywhere in the peninsula. All who adopted the customs and beliefs of Hinduism were called Hindus. Thus the Tamils are Hindus.

Other Invasions. Other invaders kept coming through the passes into the Punjab and beyond. Darius I, the Persian, ruled the whole plain of the Indus as part of his empire. Alexander the Great flashed across the Punjab and home again. For a time the Bactrian Greeks occupied the Indus plain. The Indians of the North learned much from the Persians and Greeks. Then there were less civilized invaders—Scythians, Parthians, and others—pushing eastward towards Bengal, and southward towards the belt of hills, the Vindhya range, and forests that guarded the Deccan.

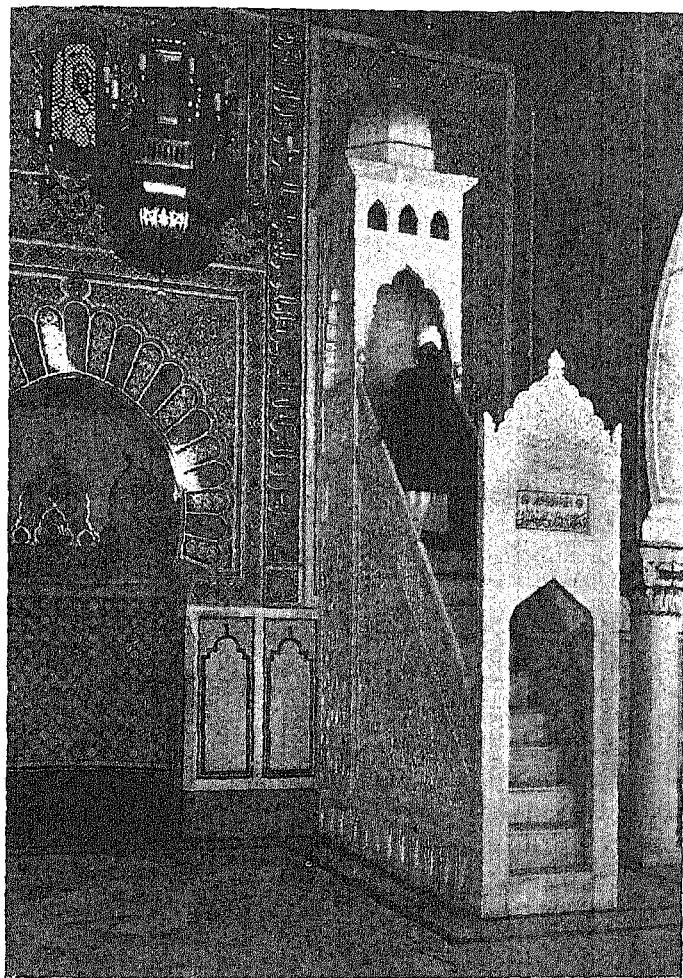
In the fifth century came the White Huns, an ugly, fierce race that created a panic wherever they went. Many Hun tribes settled down in Hindustan and adopted the Hindu religion and customs.

When Northern India was free from invasion it was happy and prosperous, and the great Hindu rulers encouraged art and learning. Famous temples were built for the many gods of the Hindus. But, as so often happened in Indian history, when a strong ruler died the other princes fought against one another, and there was chaos.

About A.D. 810 one hears of new clans or tribes calling themselves Rajputs, or Sons of Kings, who had settled in Oudh and the country now called Rajputana, and gradually spread over all Hindustan. No one really knows the origin of the Rajput clans (there are now thirty-two clans in India). It is probable that they do not belong to a single race: some were descendants of the old Aryan nobles; others were invaders who had settled down in the country and whose leaders had been admitted into the Hindu fold by the Brahmin priests.

The Rajputs were famous warriors, and the boys were brought up very much as the boys of the Middle Ages in Britain and the Continent were brought up to be knights. Their duty was to fight for their chiefs, to protect the Brahmins, and to help those who needed help. The Rajputs were strict Hindus, so the power of the Brahmins increased. Many magnificent palaces and temples were built—for example, the Palace of the Winds at Udaipur and the building at Amber, an age-old ruined city. It is a rose-red building of beautifully carved red sandstone. Unfortunately the Rajputs were always quarrelling among themselves, so when the Moslem invasions began—the most terrible invasions of all—the Hindus could not combine against their foes.

The Moslem Invasions. You have heard perhaps about Mohammed, and how he taught the Arabs to believe in one God, life after death, and judgment. He called his faith *Islam*, which means 'submission to God,' and the followers of his faith *Moslems*, 'those who submit to God.' His simple faith spread from Arabia through Syria,



KAPURTHALA, INDIA: INTERIOR OF THE MOORISH MOSQUE

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for India

Mesopotamia, Persia, Afghanistan, to the wild nomad tribes of Central Asia — the Turks, Tartars, and Mongols.

The first Moslems to invade India were the Arabs who conquered Sind in the eighth century. The Arabs on the whole remained on friendly terms with their Hindu neighbours. Then came invasions of the Turks who had set up kingdoms in Afghanistan. They swept across North India between A.D. 1000 and 1500. Moslem sultans at Delhi ruled the land from the Punjab to Bengal. The new conquerors pushed farther south than any other invaders. Five Moslem kingdoms were set up in the Deccan. Only in Southern India was Hindu India saved from the invaders.

Lastly, from A.D. 1505 onward, through the same North-western passes, came the Moguls. Their first homes were on the outskirts of Turkestan, but in the course of time they had invaded Persia and intermarried with the Persians. The Moguls proved able rulers; the greatest of them was Akbar, who ruled in India when Queen Elizabeth was ruling in England. He gave India more peace, justice, and prosperity than the country had ever known before.

Beautiful buildings were erected—for example, the Taj Mahal. Look at the pictures of the Taj Mahal (page 141) and the Hindu temple (opposite) and notice how different they are.

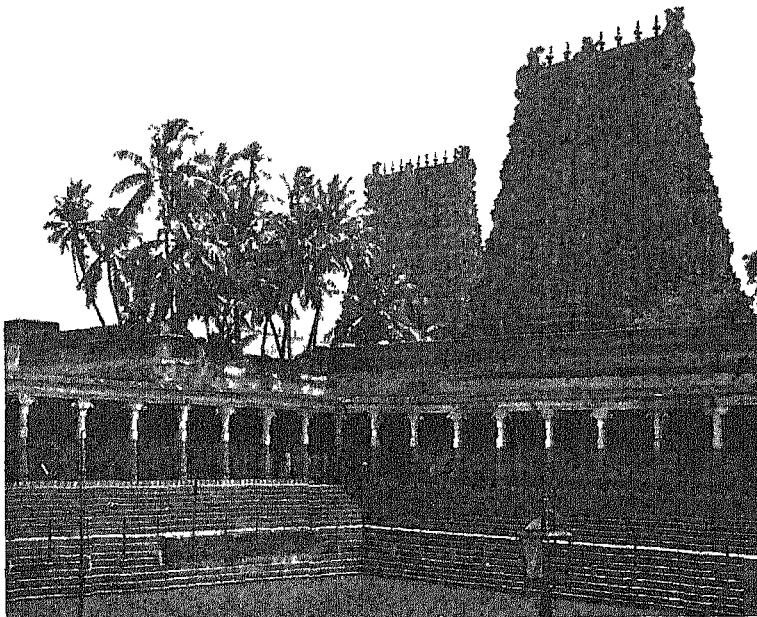
During the years of conquest, for one reason or another, a large number of Indians, especially in the North, accepted the Moslem faith.

THE TWO GREAT FAITHS OF INDIA

Thus India was divided between two great faiths so different from each other that a wide gulf that cannot

be bridged seems to lie between the Hindus and Moslems. (You will learn more about Hinduism in the section where you read about Indian villages and towns.)

The Moslems believe in one all-powerful God, to



MEENAKSHI TEMPLE, MADURA, INDIA

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for India

Whom they pray daily at home or in their mosques; the Hindus have images of many gods, and grand temples for these images that are tended by the Brahmins. The Moslems are all brothers, rich or poor, high or low. The Hindus are divided by their caste system. The Moslem religion is a Western religion; Hinduism belongs to the East.

There are to-day some 206,000,000 Hindus in India, and 93,000,000 Moslems. Hindus do not want to be ruled by Moslems, nor Moslems by Hindus. In India the people do not think of themselves as Indians, but as Hindus or Moslems.

Another important religious sect is the Sikhs. Although they are only 6,000,000 in number they are very important because they are a warlike race. Their religion is a form of Hinduism, but they have abolished caste distinction and idolatry. The principles of their faith are contained in their Holy Book, the Granth-Sahib. The Sikhs live in the province of the Punjab and the adjoining Punjab states. Their capital is Amritsar.

Gautama Buddha was a reformer of Hinduism. He disapproved of the caste system and of the tyranny of the Hindu priests. His followers were known as Buddhists. There are not many in India now, but Buddhism is the religion of a great part of Asia.

HOW THE BRITISH CAME TO INDIA

It was during the Mogul period that the British first came to India. In 1600 the East India Company was formed to trade with the East. The Company was purely a trading company. It did not want to colonize or conquer any land, but to trade peacefully. The men in charge of the Company's trade were known as 'factors,' and their offices and storehouses were known as 'factories,' in a sense quite different from that in which the word is used to-day. The Company was careful to get the permission of the Mogul Emperor to have 'factories' and trading-posts on the coast. Their first settlements were on the Hooghly and at Madras in 1640. Both the Moguls and the local rulers

were friendly to the traders. It was the Portuguese, the first traders with India, and later the Dutch who tried to hinder British trade. But in spite of this opposition it continued to expand. Mogul India got what she wanted most—some European luxuries: tin, lead, silver, and broadcloth. The Company got Indian products that could be sold at a profit in Europe—indigo, cotton goods, lac, sugar, raw silk of Persian origin, and saltpetre.

It is interesting to notice that not one of the great modern cities—Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay—was acquired by fighting. Madras was rented from the Raja of the Carnatic—or, rather, from one of his chiefs. It was nothing but a dreary waste of sand. It had no scenery, no harbour, but there was good anchorage in its roads.

It was Job Charnock, the Company's principal agent in North-east India, who founded Calcutta, the greatest city of the East. He rented three villages on the muddy and fever-stricken flats at the mouth of the Ganges. One village was Calcutta. A thriving trade developed in Bengal.

The island of Bombay was ceded to the British by Portugal as part of the dowry of Charles II's wife. Charles II handed it over to the East India Company. It was only a fishing village at the time, but little by little it grew, for the Parsee (descendants of the Persian) and Hindu merchants found they could trade there freely and practise their religious rites freely.

Peaceful trade went on for some time, but not long after the death of Akbar the Moslem Empire began to split up. The emperors were no longer strong, and their unwise acts provoked discontent and rebellion. The Rajput chiefs, who had served the Moguls faithfully,

were badly treated by them, and they asserted their independence. Provincial viceroys, like the Nizam of Hyderabad, set up as princes on their own. The warlike Marathas controlled a wide area in Western India and began to rob and plunder. Terrible stories are told of Maratha raids on Bengal. Hyder Ali, a military adventurer, made himself a little kingdom in Mysore and invaded the Carnatic. Everywhere lesser chiefs tried to get part of the Mogul Empire for themselves. In such a warring world the village folk and farmers suffered perhaps most of all. Famine stalked the land, trade and industry dwindled.

In order to protect their trading-posts, Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta, the East India Company built forts, and bodies of Indians known as 'sepoys' were enlisted and drilled under British officers.

Besides defending their trading - stations from marauding native princes the British had another enemy in India—the French. The French also had an East India Company (since 1661), trading-posts, forts, and garrisons of sepoy's at Pondicherry and other places. The French and English were at war in Europe. In India the French had a clever leader called Dupleix. His aim was to drive the English out of India; to do this he won over Indian princes to his side by helping them against their rivals. The British retaliated by supporting these rivals. Dupleix would have succeeded in making the French masters of India if it had not been for the genius of Clive and Britain's sea-power. The fighting between France and England began in 1746 and ended with the defeat of the French in 1760. The fact that two foreign Powers could fight on Indian soil showed that there was little strength in the native Governments. The Mogul

Empire was a shadow, and its provinces were the prey of marauders and adventurers. Some one had to restore order, and the task fell to the British.

Before the defeat of the French in 1760 an event of great importance happened that foretold that Britain was to be the ruler of India. The young Moslem ruler of Bengal, the wealthiest and most popular province of the broken-up Empire, fell on the British settlement at Calcutta and wiped it out. The next year his great, unwieldy army was defeated by Clive at Plassey with a small force, mostly composed of well-trained sepoys. The British already established on the west and east coasts had now become, at one stroke, without planning or desiring it, the masters of North-east India. The little band of quiet traders from over the sea, who only wanted peace to carry on their trade, had obtained the same position as any of the Indian rulers who had divided up the Empire of the Great Mogul.

BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

At first the East India Company ruled badly. Warren Hastings did much to improve matters, but it was Pitt's India Bill of 1784 that began the better system of government, for it set up a Board of Control (later the India Office) responsible to Parliament. The Governor-General became supreme in India, except that he was responsible to the Board of Control and Parliament. Rule by our Westminster Parliament lasted 163 years, and it was during this period that most of the good we have done in India was done. The men sent to govern the land—Lord Cornwallis, Wellesley (the brother of Wellington), Lord William Bentinck, Lord Dalhousie, etc.—were all men devoted

to the welfare of the Indian people. Under Lord Cornwallis the Indians began to find that the British flag meant security from warlike invasion and oppression.

Wellesley's policy as Governor-General was to extend the protection of Britain over a number of Indian states. Indeed, some states, like Hyderabad, Oudh, Travancore, and a host of smaller ones, accepted the protection of Britain and kept their independence, but became part of the British Empire. It was to be proved by repeated experiences that peace in India could be kept only by the acknowledged supremacy of a single Power.

Lord Wellesley's policy was followed by Lord Hastings; the Maratha chiefs and the robber hordes of Central India were finally conquered. In his day the Gurkha hillmen of Nepal were defeated in battle, but their land has ever since remained the friendly ally of Britain, and became a great recruiting ground for her Indian armies. An attack on North-east India by Burmese armies invading Assam led to the beginning of the annexation of Burma.

Lord Bentinck's kindly rule emphasized the sense of trusteeship for the Indians. This sense of trusteeship had, indeed, never been lacking among British rulers, from Warren Hastings down to the Lawrence brothers, who loved India so well. But Lord Bentinck had an easier time than the other Governors. He was only called upon to conquer the Thugs, the caste of hereditary murderers on the Indian roads, and to put down any resistance of the half-hearted defenders of suttee—the burning of Hindu widows.

And so by degrees all India came under British rule, directly or indirectly. There was British India,

directly ruled by Britain, and the protected states, ruled by Indian princes—Travancore, Mysore, Hyderabad, Rajputana, Kashmir, and a host of others. Nepal, the land of the Gurkhas, remained completely independent, but the staunch friend of Britain.

Now let us see what good Britain did for India during these 163 years of rule. First she gave India four things that she might never have got for herself—peace, unity, impartial, *unbribed* justice, and, last but not least, an idea of freedom as realized through representative government—that is, Parliament. Peace was not possible unless India was safe from invasion. The Army of India, composed of British and Indian troops, 'shuttered up the Gateway of the North.' On the frontier there is a sort of No-man's Land where dwell warlike tribes with no common leadership. They are loosely united by their Pathan blood and their Moslem faith. By constructing roads into the interior the Government was trying to encourage the Pathan warriors to turn to peaceful pursuits, but constant watch and ward was necessary. The Indians themselves were zealous in guarding the frontier, and the comradeship of British and Indian was a guarantee of the defence of India. The coast was guarded by the Royal Navy, in which in 1946 the Royal Indian Navy, small though it was, was proud to have a share.

Then the Government had the huge task of giving India all the advantages possessed by other modern countries—roads, bridges, larger docks, schools, colleges, hospitals, etc. The cutting of canals gave India the greatest system of irrigation in the world. Canals, roads, and railways helped to protect the country from the worst of all dangers that had threatened her in the past—famine.

The railways also helped trade and brought the varied peoples of India into contact with one another.

A lead was given to many industrial enterprises—for example, the manufacture of cotton, iron, and steel. Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa are the provinces in which iron ore is mined by modern methods. Coal production increased; Bengal and Bihar are the chief coal-mining provinces. The first Indian coal was cut in 1830. Other minerals mined are manganese and gold. India is the largest sugar-producing country in the world. The history of wool-, flax-, hemp-, silk-, and cotton-production in India goes back many centuries, but jute has a history of very little more than a hundred years. The production of jute ranks now second only to cotton.

Coffee was introduced into the country in the seventeenth century, and is grown in the Nilgiri Hills. It was British enterprise that started the tea industry. India is now famous for its tea, and exports a great deal from Assam and Bengal. The tobacco industry developed greatly, and there is a flourishing industry which manufactures cigarettes of the modern type largely from tobacco grown in India. One could say a great deal about the industries of India. The modern mills and factories have made Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay rich and important towns. We must think of India to-day as a land of great mills, steel-works, and factories as well as villages and jungles.

Another good service of Britain to India was to improve the public health. The tea estates of Assam, formerly the most malarial part of India, are an example of the good fight made against malaria. This fight was made by British planters and British medical officers. Other diseases have also been successfully fought.

Lastly Britain tried to educate the people to prepare them for self-government.

THE BIRTH OF TWO NEW DOMINIONS

Right from the beginning of the nineteenth century it was recognized that Britain's trusteeship could not be perpetual. A hundred years ago that true lover of India Henry Lawrence said:

We cannot expect to hold India for ever. Let us so conduct ourselves . . . as, when the connexion ceases, it may do so not with convulsions, but with mutual esteem and affection, and that England may then have in India a noble ally, enlightened and brought into the scale of nations under her guidance and fostering care.

In August 1947 India became self-governing. If the two communities of India—Hindus and Moslems—so different in opinions and so suspicious of each other, can work together all will be well. Britain imposed a uniform justice on all—neither Hindu nor Moslem was favoured—and this made for unity.

Besides the problem of the Moslems and the Hindus there is the problem of the Scheduled Castes, 'the Untouchables,' who tend to view with misgivings the going of the British, and who feel they need protection against the caste Hindus.

Then there is another problem—the majority of the Indians live in villages, about which you will read later in the chapter, and the greater number of these cannot read or write. However, the Indians of the towns want self-government, and the village folk must be educated to vote as soon as possible. Lord Mountbatten, trusted by both Hindus and Moslems, helped in the difficult task of dividing British India between

the two parties. He was able to secure that partition took place under conditions which reduced as much as possible the danger of a clash between Hindus and Moslems. The ideal would have been, of course, a united country like Canada.

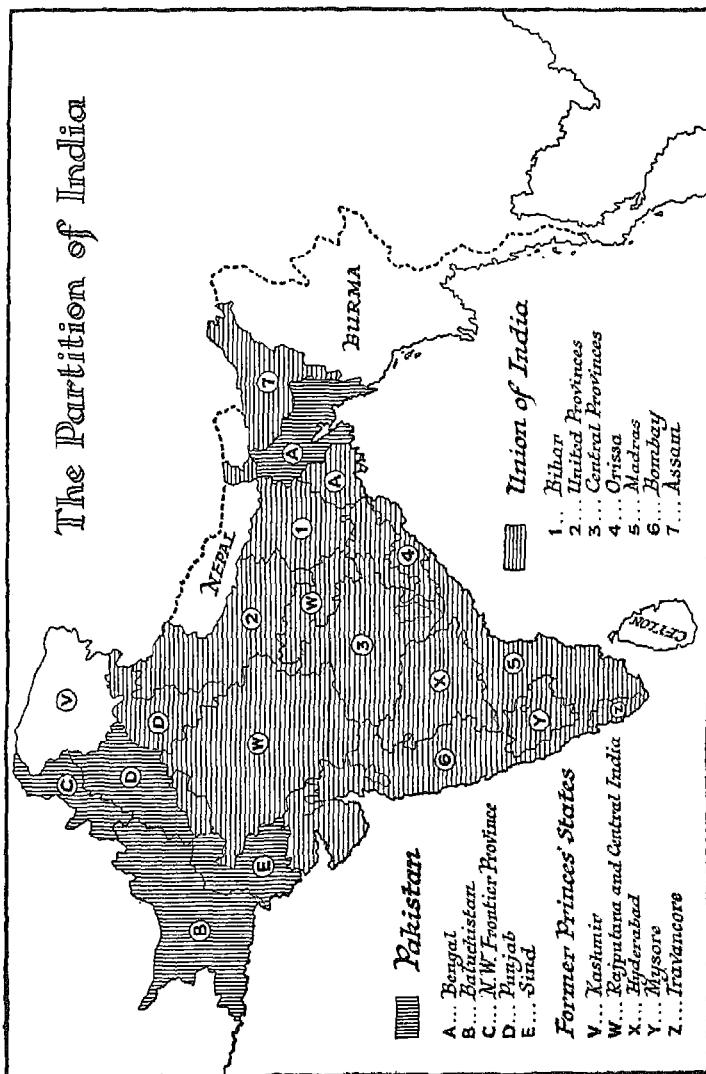
British India consisted of just over half India; it included Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Central Provinces, Madras, North-west Frontier Province, Orissa, the Punjab, Sind, United Provinces, and five chief commissionships, British Baluchistan, Delhi, Coorg, Ajmer-Merwara, and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Parliamentary government had been existing in all provinces from the summer of 1937.

The above are the lands that had to be divided between Hindus and Moslems because they could not look upon themselves as Indians and form a United States. All the parts of British India where there are most Hindus became the Dominion of India. (It is strange the Hindus prefer the name of 'India' to 'Hindustan.') All those parts of British India with the most Moslems became the Dominion of Pakistan. These two new Dominions within the British Commonwealth were created by the Indian Independence Bill of 1947.

The *Dominion of India* is the larger, as you can see from the map. Its capital is New Delhi, where flies the flag of the Hindus, with its three bands of saffron, white, and green, and its blue wheel or flower shape in the centre (see picture, page 158). Each Dominion has a Governor-General. The first Governor-General of the Dominion of India was Lord Mountbatten.

The *Dominion of Pakistan* is much smaller; look at the map, and you will see that the Punjab has been divided—the West goes to Pakistan, and the East to

The Partition of India



Pakistan

A... Bengal
B... Baluchistan
C... N.W. Frontier Province
D... Punjab
E... Sind

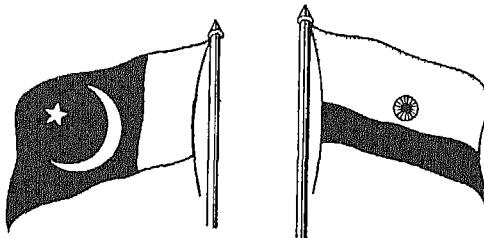
Former Princes' States

V... Kashmir
W... Rajputana and Central India
X... Hyderabad
Y... Mysore
Z... Travancore

Union of India

1... Bihar
2... United Provinces
3... Central Provinces
4... Orissa
5... Madras
6... Bombay
7... Assam

India; Bengal has been divided in the same way. Besides the West of the Punjab and Eastern Bengal, Pakistan has the North-west Frontier Province, Baluchistan, and Sind. The capital of Pakistan is Karachi, and over the Government House there floats the green Moslem flag, with its silver star and crescent (see below).



THE FLAG OF
PAKISTAN

THE FLAG OF
INDIA

Perhaps you wonder what Pakistan means. It appears to be made up of letters representing the names of the regions that the Moslems wanted in the North-west Moslem State: *P* for Punjab, *A* for the land of the Afghans—that is, the North-west Frontier region—*K* for Kashmir, *S* for Sind. *Stan* is the word for land; ‘Hindustan’ thus means ‘Land of the Hindus.’ Some say that *pakis* is derived from an Urdu word meaning ‘clean’ or ‘pure,’ and that Pakistan therefore means ‘Land of the Pure.’ Urdu is the language of Hindustani (one of the main languages in the North of India) as spoken by the Moslems, so Persian words predominate. The Hindustani spoken by the Hindus of the North is called Hindi, and there is Western Hindi and Eastern Hindi.

The *Indian States* ruled by princes had to decide

whether they would belong to India or Pakistan. There are 562 Indian states ruled by Indian princes. The King is no longer their Emperor, and Britain is no longer responsible for their defence. The states vary greatly in size; some are very small indeed—so small that they are not marked on the map, and no one has ever heard of them; some are large states, like Hyderabad, Kashmir, and Mysore, which are comparable in size with countries in Europe. Three of these states—Mysore, Travancore, and Hyderabad—in particular are most progressive and prosperous.

And so on August 15, 1947, the people of India—or, rather, the people of India and Pakistan—set out on their own. They started as Dominions within the British Commonwealth; this gives them the support of what is really a defensive alliance; it does not in any way limit their freedom. Both Britain and India can help each other by close friendship and co-operation; but there is no compulsion.

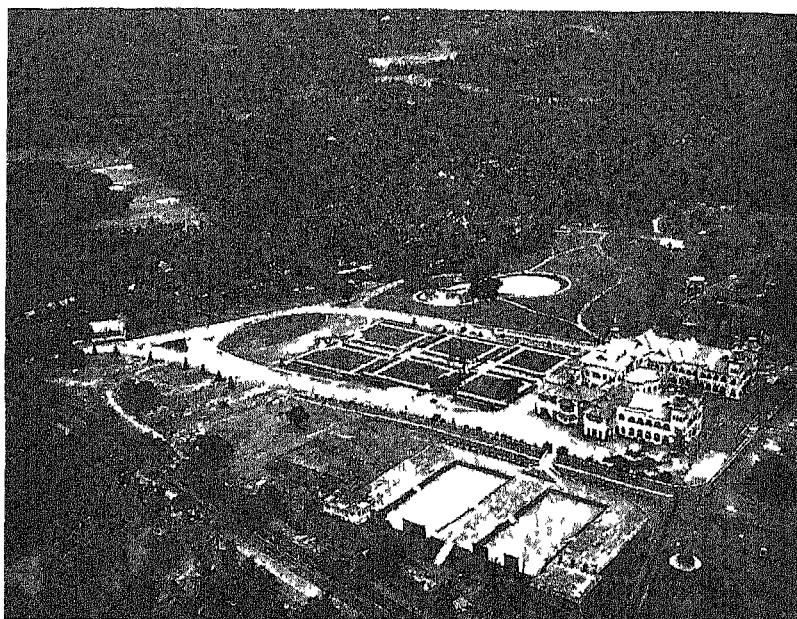
VILLAGE FOLK AND THE CASTE SYSTEM

You now know the names of some races and tribes in India—the Punjabis, the Bengalis, the Tamils, the Rajputs, and others—and also the names of the two great religious faiths that divide India—Hinduism and the Moslem faith. It will be interesting to learn a little more about how the people live and what their homes are like.

There are very many different kinds of homes in India, from the grand palaces of the Indian princes—for example, the Kandiar Palace of the Maharajah of Travancore, the most southerly of the Indian states—the fine flats and houses in the great cities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, to the most primitive huts in

the jungles, in the wild hills and forests of Assam, in the North, and the Nilgiri Hills, in the South.

But it is the villages in India we ought to visit, because village life is very important. By far the



TRIVANDRUM, SOUTH INDIA: THE PALACE OF HIS
HIGHNESS THE MAHARAJA OF TRAVANCORE

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for India

greater number of people in India are peasant farmers living in some 700,000 villages.

Some villages are very prosperous, some are very poor and a mere jumble of huts. Many suffer from lack of rain, and in these parts there is danger of famine. The British Government has done much to help these villages by building roads and, above all, by expensive

irrigation schemes to bring water to the thirsty parts such as the North-west.

In every village there is a well or tank where women gather with their pitchers on their heads to gossip. The farmers, the highest caste in the village except



A POTTERS' VILLAGE, CENTRAL PROVINCES, INDIA

The people are Hindus.

Photo Exclusive News Agency

the priests, have their huts in the centre of the village; on the outskirts live the lower castes—the blacksmith, leather-dresser, potters, and other workers to whom the peasant farmers give a share of their harvest.

The picture above shows potters at work in Northern India. The potter is of low caste because, although the business of making pots is itself cleanly, he is obliged to collect all sorts of refuse to fire his

kiln, and he uses the despised donkey to collect his refuse. He makes a great number of globular water-jars, which the women poise so gracefully on their heads. He is kept busy because his wares are so fragile that they have to be constantly replaced. Although the potters are of low caste and live outside the village, if you speak to a potter he will say, "We of the potter caste are very proud of our caste. We try to keep all our goods equally sound and well made for the honour of our caste."

Besides clay jars and dishes every home in India, however poor, has a bowl or plate of metal, for china dishes to eat from are rare and expensive in many parts. In large villages or country towns there is often a street of metal-workers. The metal-worker's shop is just the front room of his house. It is open to the street, with a little veranda in front. On one side is a small furnace where the metal is melted and mixed; on the other side the metal-worker sits cross-legged hammering the soft metal into beautiful shapes. He will tell you:

"In India our caste is our religion. We have many caste rules to follow, but not so many as some of the higher castes. Our temple is some way away, where lives our own special priest. He, of course, is not of our caste, but of a much higher caste. He is a Brahmin. He gets his fees from us, but rules us sternly. For over two thousand years we have lived like this, and during that time our caste rules have grown, so that our daily life is ordered by age-long customs.

"It may seem strange to you that the caste into which a Hindu is born should decide not only his work, but how and what he may eat; how he washes; for some what script they use if they learn to write,

whom they may marry, and where they may live—for some lose caste if they cross the water. We do not mind these rules, for they are part of our religion. If I perform my duties faithfully I shall not lose caste, and after death I may be born again into a higher caste, and finally become part of the Divine whole—but that I do not understand.”

Most of the Hindus seem contented—perhaps because what they do is their religion binding them to Something, some Godlike All-pervading Spirit that they only dimly understand.

The really unhappy people in India are the Hindus who are of no caste, ‘the Untouchables,’ or ‘Depressed,’ or ‘Scheduled Classes,’ who are excluded from the caste system by age-old custom. Their very touch is considered to pollute the caste Hindus. They often perform the menial tasks for the rest of the village—for example, clearing away dirt. They may not draw water from the same wells, and in general may not enter the same temples, as the caste Hindus. Until recent years ordinary schools were closed to them. Much has been done by the British Government to give them the opportunity of entering other occupations. And many Hindus sympathize, as Gandhi did, with them and wish to see their position improved. There are 49,000,000 ‘Untouchables’ in India, and 209,000,000 caste Hindus.

SOME INDIAN VILLAGES

Now let us visit some villages. The largest and most prosperous villages are perhaps in Bengal, the land of jute and rice, because it is well watered by the Ganges and the rain brought by the monsoons or seasonal winds.

The one we visit is in Western Bengal. It is spread out among fields of rice and sugar-cane, in leafy groves of bamboo, plantain, and mango. There are 300 houses built of bamboo matting, thatched with straw or jute sticks. Each house has its courtyard where much of the work is done, and where on the smooth, clean floor rice generally lies drying in the radiant sunshine.

The animals used in the village are oxen or water-buffaloes. Oxen are used for farm-work of all kinds and for drawing carts almost everywhere in India; water-buffaloes are common in the wetter parts. We see them ploughing the rice-fields in Bengal.

Although there are more cattle in India than in any other part of the world they are not often used for beef, because the cow is a sacred animal to the Hindus: Oil largely takes the place of butter, and many oil-seeds are grown—linseed (flax), cotton-seeds, mustard, sesamum, and ground-nuts.

There is a primary school in our village. It is a Hindu school, and, as the children know we are coming, they give us a Hindu welcome. The boys line the path on each side. Two boys begin a song of welcome, approaching as they sing. They carry garlands of marigolds, the flower of Hindu India. When they have placed garlands around our necks they retreat singing and making the most lovely gestures.

Now let us go to North-west India, to the wide, open plain of the Punjab, where there is much less rain than in Bengal. Here in the North-west the people are more warlike, because through the mountain passes warlike tribes have come; they are very different, as you know, from the people of Bengal. There are

a great number of Moslems, but you must not forget there are also many Moslems in Eastern Bengal.

Away from the Indus and its tributaries the land is dry and barren. Much of it was semi-desert, but the British Government, by a clever system of irrigation,

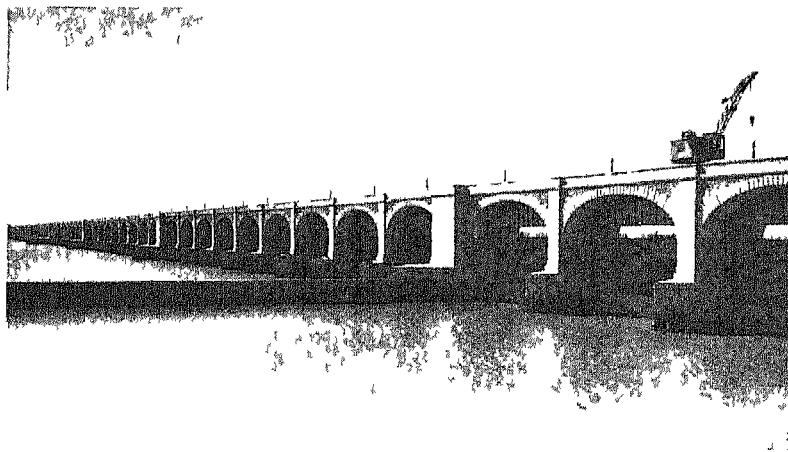


DELHI: A BULLOCK CART

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for India

turned some 6,000,000 acres of this semi-desert into a country rich in sugar-cane, cotton, and wheat. In the Punjab many great canals have been made to lead the water farther afield; and in Sind (Lower Indus) a large dam called the Sukkur Dam, or Barrage, was built by the British to hold back the water of the Indus so that it does not run to waste into the sea, but can be taken by canals to thirsty lands. Look at the picture of the Sukkur Barrage at page 166. This barrage and its canals are the largest irrigation works in the world.

In this part of India we find some of the best farmers and some very clean villages. The village we visit has flat-roofed houses because there is not much rain; they are built of sun-dried bricks, and so are the



SUKKUR BARRAGE, SUKKUR, SIND

North side, showing water at high level and controlling gates

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for India

courtyard walls, but the walls are so well plastered that they shine like porcelain. Inside, the floors are beautifully smooth, and the polished pots and pans hang neatly on the walls. In the courtyard there is a raised platform in front of the house where the family often sit. Most of the cooking and housework is done in the courtyard. Wheat is grown in the fields round the village. Besides wheat, millet and other food grains are also grown. We shall see many camels in this part of India. They are used in the fields as well as for carrying burdens. Farms, too, have goats.

Although goats are found everywhere in India, North-west India has by far the most.

In the heart of India, in the Central Provinces, where there are great stretches of jungle and where



A VILLAGE SCENE, TRAVANCORE, SOUTH INDIA

Photo Exclusive News Agency

tigers prowl, the villages are more primitive than those in Bengal and the Punjab. Mere tracks join them to a main road, and a great many villages have no schools.

Farther south, in Hyderabad, the chief state of the Deccan, village life has become more prosperous through the great artificial reservoirs built by British engineers.

In Southern India, where the Tamils live, there are

very prosperous villages. Here we often see neat houses with red-tiled roofs, coconut-palms, and rice-fields. Here, more than anywhere else, we see comely mothers with fat babies astride their hips. The paddy-fields, or rice-fields, are in the valleys, and are irrigated from the rivers by a network of channels. On the higher ground stands the village, with its temple and bathing-tank in the centre. Round each house is a courtyard or compound and a plot of ground where grow the areca palm, to supply nuts for chewing with the betel leaf, and the coconut-palm, to supply copra, leaves for thatching, fibre for mats, etc. You remember the coconut-palms of Ceylon (Chapter III).

Many Indians work on the European coffee plantations, and some villages have small coffee plantations. The coffee plantations are on the slopes of the hills. Look at the picture of a village in Southern India at page 167—but now we must leave the villages for the towns.

SOME INDIAN TOWNS

There are few modern towns in India apart from those founded by British enterprise. These are linked by railways built by the British Government; these railways are growing fast, and are giving Indian farmers better chances of sending their crops to towns and seaports.

First let us visit Bombay, which has fine European buildings, a crowded native quarter, modern cotton-mills, and an excellent harbour. Here, as in every other town in India, is a great mixture of races. There are Indian women with saris, one here and there having a patch of vermillion on her forehead, denoting that she is married; women with mere wisps of cotton and with baskets poised on their heads; fierce-looking

Afghans and frontiersmen, an Arab horse-dealer, recognizable by the handkerchief on his head with a rope round it; merchants with little basket-shaped caps, who belong to a Moslem sect; Parsees with curious japanned hats or round felt ones, and beautiful fair Parsee ladies in coloured silks, riding in costly motor-cars. They are the wives and daughters of the great Parsee merchants and bankers of Bombay. The Parsees are the descendants of the Persians who invaded India long ago. Although they are few in number they are influential. Most of them settled in and near Bombay. There are Moslem women tight-veiled in white from head to foot, with only little smocked eyelet-holes for the eyes and breath. There are no high-caste Hindu purdah women, because they never go abroad. There are Moslems in red fezes or white or green turbans, and Hindus in their own special turbans. There are fine tall Sikhs from the North, Mahrathas from the Deccan, and Europeans jostling one another in endless confusion. From Bombay we take the train to Benares, the most sacred city of the Hindus. Millions of pilgrims visit it every year to bathe in the holy Ganges and worship in the temples. In the narrow streets leading to the river there is a temple or image of a god every few yards, on which passers-by sprinkle Ganges water or place a garland. There are flower-shops where these garlands for the gods can be bought—wreaths of marigolds or white jasmine, pink rose-petals, and crimson flowers. Down by the river, fronted by strange temples of red stone and gilded metal, and by the ghats—great flights of stone steps leading to the river—are vast crowds of people, all come to bathe in the sacred river.

Sacred cows wander where they will in the town,

poking their noses into vegetable stalls and stopping the traffic, but no one must interfere with them because they are sacred. They are often seen sunning themselves on the steps leading down to the Ganges; goats and monkeys climb the steps and cornices of the temples.

Indian temples are not churches where people meet for worship; they are simply shrines or shelters for the images of gods or godlings. They are receiving houses for gifts. A good Hindu need not go near a temple; he can send his offering. In doing this he is acknowledging something somewhere greater than himself.

The Brahmins perform all the ceremonies in the temples. These consist in attending to the idol as if it were a man or woman. Women more often than men come to watch these ceremonies—for example, 'the Uprising,' when the image is taken from its bed, washed, anointed with oil, and returned to its proper seat for the day.

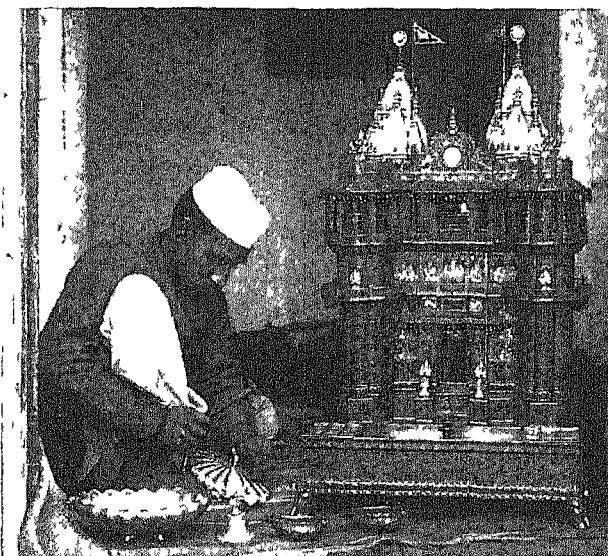
Although there are some 30,000 idols worshipped in India, the learned Hindu will tell you there is only one God, for the whole universe is God, all things are formed of Him—the sun, the sacred river, cows, peacocks, and little godlings. The chief gods are Brahma, the Creator; Shiva, the Destroyer; and Vishnu, the Preserver.

From Benares we go by train to Calcutta, running across India's chief coalfield, where iron is found too. In the Lower Ganges Valley we pass large railway works and many jute-mills that turn the jute grown in the delta into gunny-bags, mats, and string.

Like Madras, Bombay, and other great Indian ports, Calcutta is a strange mixture of East and West. The

European part has magnificent buildings, fine houses, and broad streets; the native town has narrow, dusty streets and bazaars crowded with people of all nations and languages.

Karachi is the chief port for the far-off Punjab, a



A SKILLED BRASS-WORKER OF NORTH INDIA BESIDE A MODEL OF A TEMPLE AND SPECIMENS OF TABLE ORNAMENTS

Photo Exclusive News Agency

railway terminus, and the first airport of India. It is now the capital of the new Dominion of Pakistan.

Before we leave India we must visit Delhi, the capital of the other new Dominion, the Union of India. Delhi is the ancient capital of Hindustan. Here long ago great Hindu rulers reigned; here too, later, the Moguls ruled in their fortresses and palaces, some of which still remain to remind us of the city's wonderful

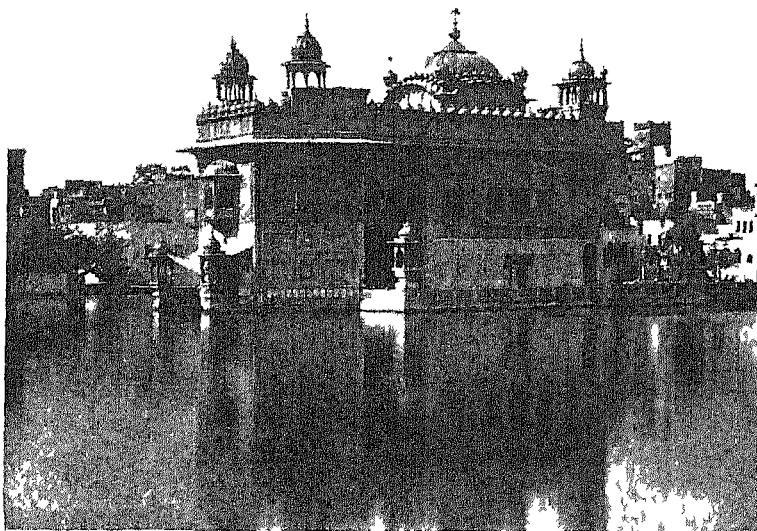
past. New Delhi is built beside the old, with fine public buildings. In the ancient and walled city of Delhi we can see some lovely Indian crafts. Partly because of the caste system, which encourages the handing down of crafts from father to son, the craftsmen of India are famous. In Delhi we can watch craftsmen in gold, silver, brass, and ivory performing their delicate work under the shadow of a famous Moslem mosque where at noon on Fridays thousands of devout Moslems gather in a great courtyard to offer prayers to the one God, Allah. Everywhere one notices the great difference between the religion of the Hindus and the Moslems. The picture at page 145 shows the interior of a beautiful modern mosque. Notice how all the decorations are geometrical patterns. There are no pictures or images of gods. Some verses from the Koran, the Moslem Bible, are often written on the walls.

Another interesting town is Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, from which roads and railways radiate in all directions. From Lahore we can easily visit Amritsar, the capital of the Sikhs. Here is the famous Golden Temple, a beautiful shrine set in a quiet lake, where the bearded priests of this reformed sect of Hinduism daily chant from the Granth Sahib, the Sikh Bible.

The Moslem inhabitants of Lahore are in striking contrast to the types to be seen elsewhere in India. But the men of the North are best studied at Peshawar, the capital of the North-west Frontier Province and the guardian city of the Khyber Pass, which is India's great North-western gateway to Afghanistan and Western Asia. Through this gateway, as you know, invasion after invasion has poured into India. The

fierce tribesmen of the North-west are still unsettled, and strong armies are needed to check their habits of fighting and plundering.

It is a wonderful experience to journey into the Pass



THE GOLDEN TEMPLE, AMRITZAR, INDIA

Photo Exclusive News Agency

as far as the Afghan border, especially on those days when the long caravans of camels and ponies are traversing the mountains. The road itself and the caravans are of amazing interest, and one sees types of people rarely to be seen elsewhere.

This chapter has given you only a few glimpses of India. There are many more lovely and strange places to be visited and towns to be seen. India is so varied

that to see only a few places tells one very little. There are, for example, lovely Kashmir, the playground of India, the Himalayas, and all the hill stations. At Darjeeling, with its grand views of the many Himalayas, we shall meet other races—many natives from Nepal and from mysterious Tibet—but you must find out more for yourselves. See what books you can find in the free library about India, and begin to collect pictures of India.

CHAPTER VII

BRITISH ENTERPRISE

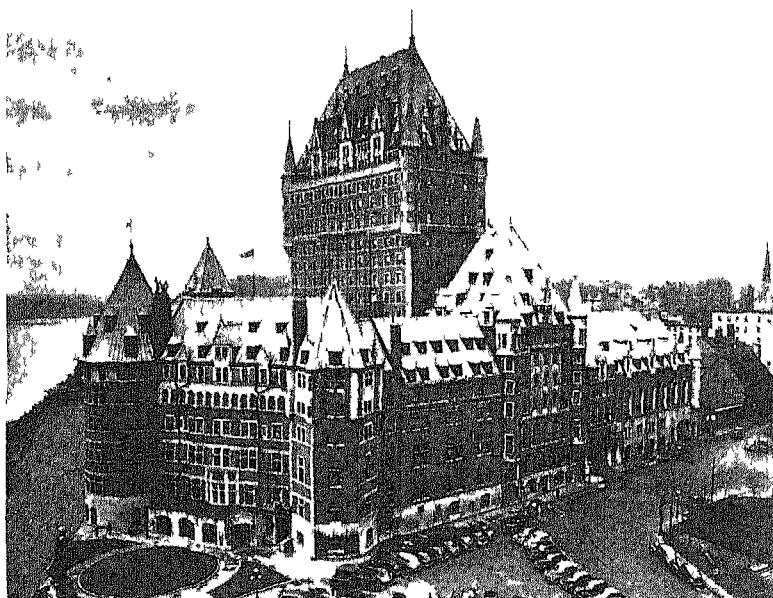
BESIDES the countries like East Africa, West Africa, etc., that are learning to rule themselves or need Britain's help for a time, there are the great self-governing countries—the two new Dominions of India and Pakistan, the Dominion of Southern Rhodesia, and the Member States of the British Commonwealth of Nations: Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. Newfoundland was a self-governing territory until 1934, when, at her own request, through money difficulties, Britain came to her rescue and took over the management of her affairs. In 1948 her people voted to become part of the Dominion of Canada.

CANADA

Nowhere, perhaps, can British enterprise be seen more clearly than in the big countries such as Canada and Australia. If you look at a map of Canada you will see that it is more than a country—it is a continent. In size it is about as large as Europe. Distances in Canada put our little island to shame. Canada is a land of contrasts. There are vast, cold, treeless plains where the caribou roams, there are great forests where lumber-men are at work, and miles and miles of prairies rich with golden grain; lovely apple orchards and orchards where grapes grow out of doors, great lakes unmatched elsewhere in the world, and mountainous country reminding one of Switzerland, or

twenty Switzerlands in one. The Canadian Alps, the Rockies, are the most beautiful mountains in the world.

Because Canada is such a vast country it was built



CHÂTEAU FRONTENAC, QUEBEC

By courtesy of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company

up bit by bit. Both the British and the French made settlements in North America. The French had settlements on the St Lawrence river near the towns of Quebec and Montreal. When England and France were at war in the eighteenth century Wolfe, you remember, captured Quebec in 1759 from its brave French defender, Montcalm, and thus the French Canadians came under British rule. They were

treated well; the British Government promised that their language, religion, and the kind of life they were used to should not be interfered with. This promise was never broken, and the French prospered and



LUMBERING, BRITISH COLUMBIA

Canada ranks third in the world as a producer of wood. Here a log train hauls fallen giants to the water where they will be floated to the sawmills in great booms.

By courtesy of the National Film Board, Canada

were content to remain under British rule, even when the thirteen colonies on the east coast broke away and became the United States.

Although the French were the first to make settlements on the banks of the St Lawrence, they were more interested in fur-trapping and trade than

colonization. They made no attempt to colonize the unexplored country that stretched west of them. Thus it was the courage and enterprise of the British that gradually changed the unexplored country of Canada—half a continent—into a land of farms, varied industries, such as logging and later mining, and busy towns.

When the thirteen colonies broke away from Britain and became 'America' some of the colonists who wanted to remain under the British flag—called the United Empire Loyalists—trekked north to begin life over again in the wild land west of Quebec. The part they settled in is known as Old Ontario. Ontario became a prosperous agricultural and mining country, and the greater part of Canada's industries are still concentrated in the section known as Old Ontario. The province of Ontario and Quebec are in a sense the centre of Canadian industry and commerce, and a huge centre too: Ontario alone would hold four countries of the area of Great Britain! East of them lie the Maritime Provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton Island, and Prince Edward Island; westward are the Prairie Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta; while on the far side of the Rocky Mountains British Columbia marks the western boundary. Away in the north-west corner is the Yukon, and between that and Hudson's Bay stretch the vast North-west Territories, including the islands in the Arctic Sea to the north.

If Wolfe and Montcalm could see Canada to-day they would never recognize it as the little Canada on the banks of the St Lawrence river that they fought for long ago. They would wonder even more than we do at the great progress made—the immense wheat-

lands of Manitoba and Saskatchewan, the cattle-lands of Alberta, the fisheries and lumber camps of British Columbia, and the roaring traffic of Vancouver, on the Pacific—all unknown in their day.

There still remain in Canada acres of land to be



A COMBINE HARVESTER ON AN ALBERTA FARM

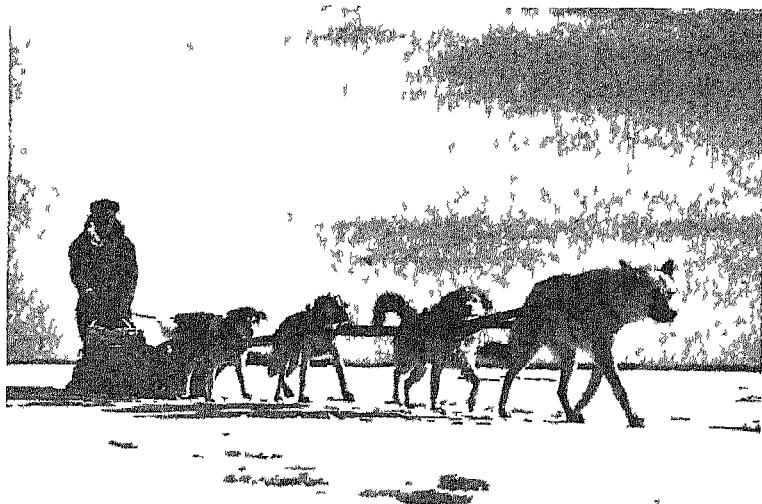
By courtesy of the National Film Board, Canada

turned into farms, but there are not enough people to work on the land; so there is still opportunity for Britons to show that they have the same zeal for work and power of endurance as the pioneers of long ago. Indeed, many men do leave Britain to make their living by farming the rich lands of the West. The West, and especially the North, can be still further developed, but it means hard work. Canada has always a special welcome for all who come from the Old Country.

Let us take a bird's-eye view of Canada and some of its workers. We will begin in the far North, in Baffin Island, the North-west Territories, and the frozen North generally. Here are the Eskimos, fishermen, and traders in fur. The peace and welfare of these far-away workers are protected by the famous Royal Canadian Mounted Police—'the Mounties.' Find North America on the globe and notice how Canada reaches far north in a tattered fringe of icy islands. On one of these barren islands—Ellesmere Island—stands a lonely wooden cabin, the outpost of 'the Mounties,' who keep Canadian law and order in the lands of the far North. Every day they go out in their dog-sledges visiting Eskimo villages and giving help where help is needed.

The Hudson's Bay Company's posts in the Canadian Arctic, which buy the Eskimos' furs, supply them with goods that they are now accustomed to—tea and flour, cooking utensils, some materials for clothing, fuel oil for motor-boats, etc. The Eskimos on the mainland are better off than those on the islands, for there are millions of caribou, musk oxen, and the reindeer that has been introduced from Asia. Farther south where clumps of trees begin are fur trappers, many of whom are Indians and half-breeds. The northern part of the Canadian forest is the fur country. In the southern edges of the forest where the trees are denser the busy lumberjacks are at work cutting down trees for building or for pulp for making paper and rayon. South of the forests come the prairies. We have already mentioned the hundreds of miles of golden grain in Saskatchewan, and the cattle lands of Alberta; then there are also sheep and horse ranches on the eastern foothills of the Rocky Mountains.

Mixed farming and dairy-farming are carried on in Ontario, Quebec, and parts of the Maritime Provinces, and fruit-farming in British Columbia (the apples from the Okanagan Valley are famous). Southern Ontario, especially the Niagara Peninsula, grows fine



INDIAN AND DOG-TEAM ON THE LONELY, FROZEN TRAIL ACROSS
LAC LA RONGE TO DISTANT ICE-FISHING HAUNTS IN NORTHERN
SASKATCHEWAN

By courtesy of the National Film Board, Canada

peaches, grapes, and other fruits, and Nova Scotia again is famous for apples.

The cod fisheries of Canada and Newfoundland have long been famous. But even more valuable than the cod fisheries of the Grand Bank are the rich salmon fisheries of British Columbia, where enormous canneries pack salmon for the world market. Besides fur, forests, wheatfields, farms, ranches, dairies, orchards,

fisheries, Canada is very rich in minerals—nickel, cobalt, and copper; gold and silver; iron, zinc, and lead; asbestos and coal; uranium, used in the development of atomic energy, and pitchblende, from which radium is obtained.

Because it is such a big land much use has to be made of motor-cars, trains, canals, waterways, and aeroplanes. Two great railways cross Canada, the Canadian National Railway and the Canadian Pacific Railway. The Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence form one of the busiest waterways in the world. Freight and passenger steamers ply the Great Lakes from Fort William to Montreal, the Dominion's largest city and a great centre of industry like Toronto. Air service is used to take miners and their tools over rough country—for example, to the new mines in the North-west Territories, and to link up the North-west of Canada with the great cities of the South.

About 1867 the people of the different provinces decided to come together to form one united nation while keeping their own parliaments and local government. They formed a federation of provinces. This federation has a Central Parliament at Ottawa which decides on peace and war and settles matters that concern the whole of Canada—that is, all the provinces. A Prime Minister is chosen as the head of the Central Government. Canada is a free country because each of the Parliaments does what the majority of the people want, and no provincial Parliament has power to interfere with any other.

Although Canada is in the main an English-speaking country, and the majority of people are British (English, Scottish, Irish, Welsh), there are also many Europeans—Scandinavians, Ukrainians, Poles, Italians, Czechs—

and a fair number of Chinese and Japanese and, of course, Red Indians and Eskimos. English and French



PICKING APPLES IN AN ORCHARD OF THE
OKANAGAN VALLEY, BRITISH COLUMBIA

By courtesy of the National Film Board, Canada

are both official languages, and Montreal is a city of two languages, for both French- and English-speaking Canadians live there. If you ask a policeman the way in Montreal he can answer you in English or French.

Quebec is a predominantly French Canadian city, and is full of historical memories of the days when Canada was New France.

Yet all in Canada live happily together. They are members of a family, the Canadian nation, just as we



A PRACTICE GAME OF ICE HOCKEY AT MONETA PUBLIC
SCHOOL, TIMMINS, ONTARIO

By courtesy of the National Film Board, Canada

are all members of a greater family—the Commonwealth of Nations. There are many interesting books you can read about Canada, and the librarian of your free library will help you to choose some. You should especially read the story of Wolfe and Montcalm, for the courage and generous spirit of these two men foretold in a sense the unity and prosperity of the Canada yet to be.

Newfoundland can be called the first colony in the Empire's history. It was linked with Britain from the days of Henry VII. The story of Newfoundland again shows British enterprise. It was a most difficult island to colonize, for it had little to offer settlers. Fishermen, of course, it attracted, but they came and went. To build houses, dig the hard soil, and stand the cold winters required men of determination and courage. Read if you can the story of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who was the first to try to colonize Newfoundland, and the first to turn men's minds from piracy and gold-seeking to colonization.

The majority of the people of Newfoundland to-day are engaged in cod-fishing and lumbering. Labrador, which belongs to Newfoundland, has only 4000 people.

AUSTRALIA

The continent of Australia is almost exactly the same size as the United States and twenty-five times the size of Great Britain and Ireland together.

Not so very long ago—about 150 years—it was empty, with no one living there except for the wild tribes in some parts known as 'the black-fellows,' a most primitive race of people. They were never very numerous, because they lived in a land that had no milk-giving animals, no large meat-giving animals except the kangaroo, no beasts of burden, no cereals like wheat or maize, and no fruits or any plants of much food value. They had therefore little chance of increasing in number or learning, for all their time was spent in hunting for food—catching kangaroos or emus in nets, fishing, looking for grubs, snakes, and roots to eat. To-day the black-fellows are found only in the Northern Territory, where they

live on land set aside for them by the Government or in mission stations, where they are taught to live better lives.

It was this empty land, with its great central desert and lack of water in many parts, that the courage, endurance, and enterprise of the men and women of Great Britain and Ireland made into a prosperous land and great modern states.

It was the explorations of Captain Cook that made possible the prosperous land of Australia that we know to-day. In 1770 he landed in a sheltered bay, and took possession of the eastern seaboard for the British Crown; Sir Joseph Banks, the famous scientist with Cook, named the bay Botany Bay because of the interesting plants there, and Cook called the newly-found land New South Wales because of the many delightful coves like those of Wales. In 1788 brave pioneers under their leader, Captain Arthur Phillip, made the first settlement, where the fine town of Sydney stands to-day. From this settlement Australia and its people have grown into a nation. There is a statue of Captain Arthur Phillip in Sydney.

The life of the first settlers was unbelievably hard. They had to depend almost entirely on stores brought from Britain. There was practically no game to hunt, no food or material for clothing to be found except what they could grow for themselves. Many at first feared to explore the interior because it might mean death from starvation or thirst. You must read the stories of some of the first brave inland explorers, men like Gregory Blaxland, who made a road across the Blue Mountains and found the grassy plains of Bathurst, where settlements for sheep-farmers were possible; John Oxley, who discovered the Brisbane

river and opened up Queensland; Charles Sturt, who explored the river Darling.

Australia began to make rapid progress when John MacArthur introduced the merino sheep in 1803; he



GOVERNOR PHILLIP MEMORIAL IN BOTANICAL GARDENS, SYDNEY

By courtesy of the "Sydney Daily Telegraph"

began to rear sheep with excellent wool. His success caused others to follow his example, and before long there were many sheep-farmers in Australia who were growing rich by supplying the mills of Yorkshire with most of the wool they needed. There are now 112,000,000 sheep in Australia!

Poor men who could not afford to buy sheep to start a sheep station made farming colonies in South and Western Australia. At first they had a very bad

time; then in 1851 large quantities of gold were discovered in what is now the state of Victoria. This brought more men and money to Australia.

In quite a short time six colonies were formed that grew into six states:



AUSTRALIAN MERINO STUD RAM

Photo Commonwealth of Australia News and Information Bureau

New South Wales is the 'mother' state of Australia. Its capital is Sydney, famous for its beautiful harbour and bridge, and the outlet for all the wool, wheat, dairy produce, wine, and fruits of a wealthy state. It is the third city in the British Commonwealth.

Victoria, with its capital, Melbourne, is the most thickly populated state. The people of Victoria grow the finest wool in the world,

wheat, and fruit; they make butter and cheese; and they have many factories manufacturing goods of all kinds.

South Australia (capital, Adelaide) produces most of Australia's wines, and some wool, wheat, and fruit.

Western Australia has its capital at Perth, with its port, Fremantle. Into this port comes most of the butter, fruit, wheat, hardwoods, and gold that are produced in the state of Western Australia, for export to Britain and other places. Perth is the most isolated of the capital cities, and one has to cross the southern fringes of the Central Desert to reach it.

The Northern Territory is within the tropics; it is not a state yet, but it is still under the control of the Federal Government. This is the cattle country, for the rainy seasons bring rich grass. Most of the cattle stations are big and have big names — Cromoboolaroo, Wooloongalla, Jimboomba, and Wunglepong. These are native names. Drovers have often to take their beef cattle hundreds of miles from pasture to pasture or to market. The country here is possible only for cattle, and then only if the stations are large. It is a dry country, but not parched, and when the rains come, gently at first, and then thrumming like galloping horses, a flush of green runs over the whole country. Although the wet season makes the grass grow high, the feed does not last through the dry season. Many big cattle stations have been abandoned because life is not easy in these parts either for men or for cattle. It is tropical country, and insect pests are numerous.

Until the British came this country was semi-desert land, across which travelled the nomadic 'black-fellows.' Artesian wells have been bored here and in many parts of the country. There are some 8750 wells altogether, so that to-day herds of cattle grow fat where once the kangaroo and wallaby starved. Port Darwin is the capital of the Northern Territory and one of the chief centres of Australia's air transport, as well as an important naval base.

Queensland, with its capital, Brisbane, is also within the tropics. Here grow pineapples, sugar-cane, bananas, papaws, mangoes, a small amount of rice, etc. All these tropical fruits and products were, of course, introduced by the British. You must bear in mind that Australia has no native fruits of any value; her

most useful tree is the eucalyptus. In the rice-fields and sugar-cane plantations, and, indeed, everywhere, you will see white people at work. The Australians want no Tamils from India, or Chinese, or Japanese.



PINEAPPLES GROWING IN AUSTRALIA

Photo Australian News and Information Bureau

Australia is essentially a white man's land. It has fortunately no 'colour' problem.

South of Victoria is Tasmania—'Apple Island'—the smallest of the Australian states.

In 1900 the separate states decided to federate or join to form a united nation. After long discussions they agreed among themselves as to what they wanted. Then the Parliament at Westminster passed an Act to carry out the wishes of Australia. Each state kept its own Parliament and its own local Government, but



PRIDE OF AUSTRALIA'S FORESTS

The eucalyptus, which yields most of the country's most valuable hardwood, extends over thousands of square miles of rugged mountain country in the south-eastern region of the continent.

Photo Australian News and Information Bureau

there was to be a new Parliament to represent all the states and a Prime Minister for Australia. The Commonwealth of Australia is therefore a collection of free states like Canada, while it is also a member of the equally free British Commonwealth of Nations.

A Federal capital had to be chosen for united Australia, where the new Parliament and Central Government could be housed. A piece of land was chosen in the Yass-Canberra district of New South Wales, to be Federal territory, and in this territory, which did not belong to any one state, but all the states, a site was chosen for the capital—namely, Canberra, on the Molonglo river. Here fine Parliament and Government buildings were erected. Canberra has grown into a big garden city, a peaceful city, something in the same way as Washington, the Federal capital of the United States of America, grew into a garden city.

Australia is in many ways a very different land from Great Britain. It has strange trees like the eucalyptus, strange animals like the kangaroo, interesting birds like the kookaburra, with its laughing call, huge sheep stations and cattle stations and wheat lands, wonderful beaches where surf-bathing and surf-riding go on, and a wonderful Barrier Reef off the coast of Queensland, where, besides some of the most lovely coral in the world, are turtles and strange, brilliantly coloured fish. Then the weather is warm and sunny for most of the year. But, although the country is different, the people are all British like ourselves. The hardships of the early days have, however, brought out and emphasized the British characteristics of self-reliance, enterprise, and courage. Australia is bound to Britain—as, indeed, are Canada and New Zealand—by the

bonds of a common heritage and culture, and a loyalty to the ideals of freedom and justice; the symbol of these ideals is the Kingship. As in Canada so in Australia there is plenty of room and work for those with courage and enterprise. In places it is still a great empty land.

Australia has some colonies or 'dependencies' of its own—two small islands, Norfolk Island and Lord Howe Island, and, far more important, about half of New Guinea—namely, Papua, in the south-east, and the Mandated Territory of New Guinea, in the north-east, together with the surrounding islands. Papua is half as large again as England. The name is an Australian invention. It is a Malayan word for woolly and curly, and most of the natives are black with woolly hair.

NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand, like Great Britain, is an island country. They are almost the same size, and both have temperate climates, though New Zealand is warmer than Great Britain. Also the people of the two countries are very much alike, for New Zealand, like Australia, has been peopled almost entirely by English, Scottish, Irish, and Welsh settlers. Although it is the smallest of the British self-governing Dominions, it is not the least happy and is well beloved.

It was a Dutchman, Abel Tasman, who discovered and named the islands in 1642, but he did not land on them, because he was repulsed by the Maoris. Britain's connexion with the islands begins with the voyages of Captain Cook, who rediscovered them in 1769, and really made them known.

A clever man called Edward Wakefield founded the

New Zealand Company to help men who wanted to make homes in New Zealand. The first settlers under his scheme landed in 1840. It must have required some courage in those days to cross the sea in small boats to the other end of the world. The first settlers,

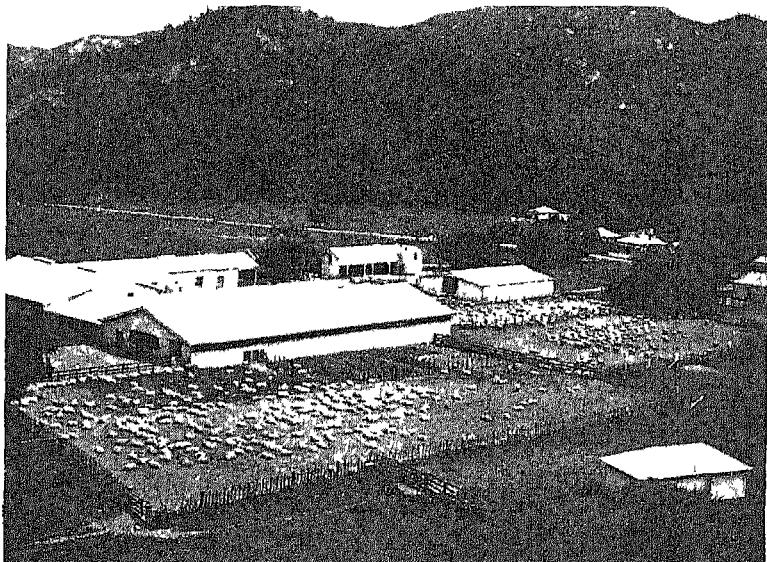


MAORIS COOKING IN A BOILING SPRING

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for New Zealand

although they were helped by Wakefield, had a difficult time, partly because there were already living on the islands—North Island and South Island—a warlike, strong, and intelligent race called the Maoris. The colonists kept out of their way—for there was plenty of land—but they were often attacked by them. However, by the Treaty of Waitangi, in 1846, a lasting peace was made. The Maori chieftains acknowledged the authority of the British Queen, and in return the *paketa* ('the white men') acknowledged the right of the Maoris to their lands and fisheries. If the Maoris

wished to sell their land they were to sell it to the Government at a fair price, and the Government resold it to the white settlers. One of the men who most helped the British and Maoris to live happily



'CANTERBURY LAMB': SHEEP STATION AT HUNTERVILLE,
NORTH ISLAND, NEW ZEALAND

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for New Zealand

together was that great Empire-builder (in the best sense of the word) Sir George Grey. He was sent to govern New Zealand when fighting was going on between the settlers and Maoris. He treated the natives justly and kindly. He pleased them by learning their language and listening to their folk-tales. They were very sorry when eight years later he had to leave them. They thanked him for what he had done for them, and called him their 'father.'

To-day the British and Maoris live on terms of equality and friendship. They go to the same schools and universities, enter the same businesses and professions, play the same games, and intermarry freely.

One of the most interesting settlements was made on South Island largely by the efforts of Edward Wakefield. It was called Canterbury. The uninhabited, tussock-covered plain soon developed into the Canterbury Plains, where the famous Canterbury lamb originated. The first homes were quickly built of sod and rubble. Later saw-mills were established on the rivers to cut timber, and comfortable wooden houses were built. Later still a fine cathedral was built—Christ Church Cathedral, Canterbury, in memory of the Canterbury at home.

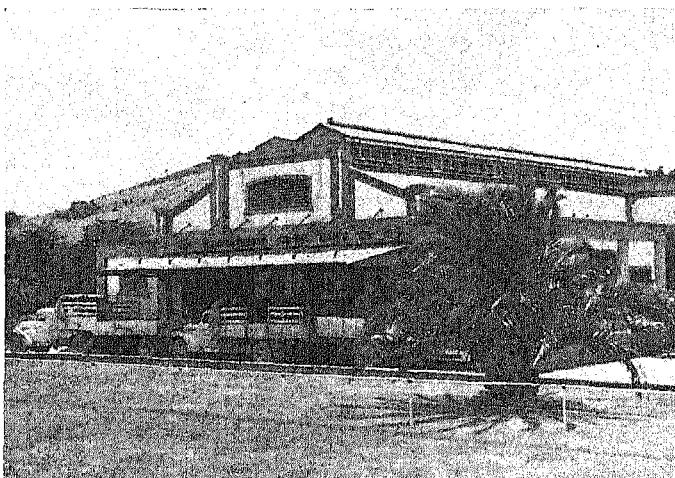
The settlers had to bring from England almost everything they needed for farming—sheep and cattle, clover and grasses to feed them, wheat, oats, barley, fruits, and vegetables. They took song birds too, and English flowers to remind them of home, and honey-bees. New Zealand is now famous for its honey.

They found no native wild animals in New Zealand, although bird-life was abundant. The wild boars found there to-day are the descendants of the pigs brought by Captain Cook. Red deer and fallow deer were brought from Britain, and now abound. Game birds were also introduced, and trout. The trout have flourished amazingly, and New Zealand is famous for them, especially rainbow trout.

The most important work of the country lies in the farming of sheep and cattle, crops and fruit, and in the industries that spring from them, such as the making of butter and cheese and the freezing of meat

for export. North Island is especially famous for dairy farming, and South Island for its frozen mutton.

There are four large and many smaller towns and cities where factories have grown up. Auckland, in North Island, is the warmest, busiest, and largest



A MODERN NEW ZEALAND BUTTER FACTORY

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for New Zealand

town, and, indeed, the loveliest, with the wide sweep of its harbour, where yachts like huge white birds swim over the rippling water in the bright sunshine. Yachting is a particularly popular sport. Wellington, in the south of North Island, is the capital of New Zealand. It is not so large as Auckland, which was once the capital. It is built in a semicircle on the slopes of a ring of green hills.

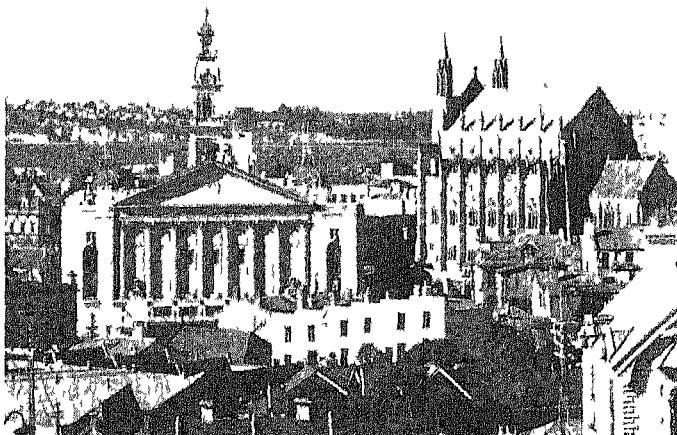
The two largest cities in South Island are Christchurch, in the east, said to be 'the most English city outside England' (you have already read about its

cathedral, Christ Church), and Dunedin, away to the south. It is cooler round Dunedin, and oats are grown. The name 'Dunedin' (*Dun*, 'a strong place,' and *Edin*) means the same as Edinburgh, and from this name and the fields of oats we can guess it was founded by Scottish settlers. The towns in New Zealand are very much smaller than those in Australia.

We must not forget little Stewart Island, just off South Island, famous for fish and oysters. The three islands form a land of wonderful natural beauty, grand mountains where alpine sports can be enjoyed, lakes of changing colours, strange hot springs and geysers on North Island, grand fiords and waterfalls in the south that remind us of Norway. The great evergreen forests on the wetter western slopes of the Southern Alps are very wonderful, and make one think that New Zealand is a land of trees. Many ferns grow in New Zealand, little ferns and ferns as big as trees—indeed, there is so much fern country that it has been called 'the land of ferns.' Butter that is exported from New Zealand is stamped with a fern leaf.

New Zealand became a Dominion in much the same way as the other colonies. At first the colonies were just settlements of adventurous men and women. Then they became Crown Colonies ruled directly from the United Kingdom, which appointed Governors. Sir George Grey, you remember, was Governor of South Australia in 1841, and later Governor of New Zealand. Then, in agreement with the Mother Country, the 'Colonials' began to look after their own affairs, until they were made self-governing Dominions. Finally they became free and equal partners with Britain, owning allegiance no longer to the United Kingdom Government, but to their King only.

New Zealand has some dependencies: the Kermadec Islands, Cook Islands, Niue (or Savage Island), Tokelau (or Union) group, Western Samoa (on one of which group—Upolu—R. L. Stevenson lived); Apia



TOWN HALL AND CATHEDRAL, DUNEDIN, NEW ZEALAND

By courtesy of His Excellency the High Commissioner for New Zealand

the port has a wireless station and good shipping communications with New Zealand and Fiji. Then there is the Ross Dependency, the frozen lands round the Ross Sea—South Victoria Land, Edward VII's Land. These names are only names as yet, as we know little about what lies beyond their mountain barriers. No one lives there. The one source of revenue is the whaling industry. In days to come it is possible that scientists will make these regions important.

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

The Union of South Africa is nine times the size of the British Isles. It is made up of four provinces: the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the

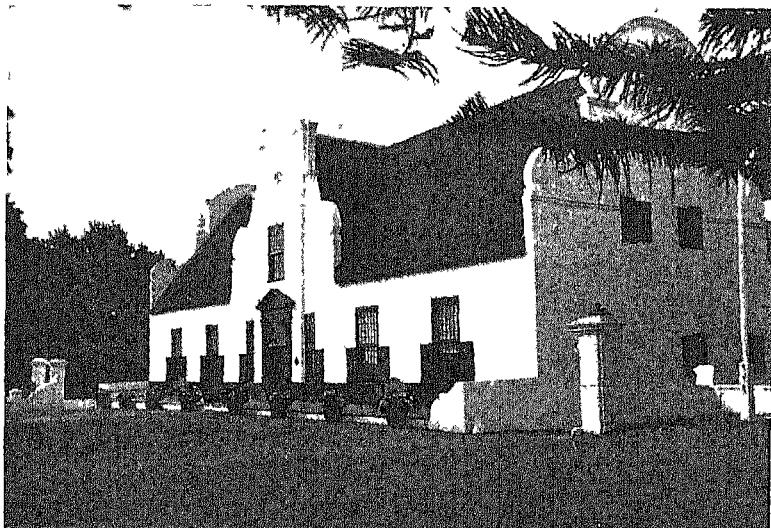


UNION BUILDINGS, PRETORIA

Fox Photos, Ltd

Transvaal. The word 'Union' in the name of the country is interesting. It means that the four states of the country, when they joined together, formed themselves into a closer union than did the states of Canada or Australia. The Parliament or Legislature of the Union has very wide powers over the whole country; the Governments of the four states, now called provinces, keep only the right to make regulations on certain matters. The House of Parliament consists of two houses, as does ours—a Senate and House of Assembly. It meets at Cape Town. The Union has

two capitals—Cape Town, where British and Dutch South Africans work together in making laws for their country; and Pretoria, which is the seat of Government. The head of the Government is the Prime Minister.



A VIEW OF GROOT CONSTANTIA, NEAR CAPE TOWN

This homestead was originally built by Simon van der Stel, an early Cape Governor. It has been completely destroyed by fire more than once. Restored faithfully, it is now the property of the South African Government.

By courtesy of the State Information Office, Pretoria

The majority of the Europeans in the Union are Dutch and British. It is not really correct to speak of the South African of Dutch descent as Dutch. He prefers to call himself an Afrikaner, a citizen of South Africa. He speaks a language called Afrikaans. Afrikaans is the Dutch language as used in Africa. It has descended from the first Dutch settlers, and so is different from the Dutch of Holland to-day; hence

its name Afrikaans. The Dutch never kept in touch with their mother country as Britons did with Britain.

Children at school learn all that you learn, but they have to learn two languages, English and Afrikaans, because these are the two official languages of the Union. All men in Government employment must speak both languages, and both are used for commerce.

The word 'Boer' is never used to-day for an Afrikaner. The Dutch settlers were at first *all farmers* or *boers*, so that 'Boer' became another name for 'Dutch.' But to-day all Afrikaners are not farmers.

Now let us see how the Dutch and British came to South Africa and learnt to unite and work together.

The Cape was first used as a place of call for Portuguese, Dutch, and English ships going to and from the East Indies for spices. In 1652 the Dutch East India Company took possession of Table Bay, built a fort, and occupied the land around in order to be ready with supplies for passing ships. During the wars with Napoleon, Britain, with the consent of the Dutch, took possession of Cape Colony to save it from the French. In 1814 the Dutch permanently ceded Cape Colony to Britain for six million sterling.

Natal got its name from the fact that it was discovered on Christmas Day 1497 by the famous Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama. The first Europeans to settle in Natal were a small party of Englishmen who came by sea in 1820 and established themselves on the coast where Durban now stands. Natal was then part of a great Zulu kingdom. About 1839 another settlement was formed by a large party of Dutch Boers who came with their wagons overland from the Cape Colony and settled in the northern districts of Natal.

In 1843 Natal was proclaimed as British, and in 1893 had its own Government.

The Transvaal was formed as the South African Republic by parties of Dutch Boers from the two English colonies who 'trekked' into the interior of the continent, and wrested the land across the Vaal river from the native chiefs. The discoveries of the gold-fields within the border led to the coming of many settlers. Although the Dutch allowed them to settle, they did not treat them well, and eventually trouble arose between the Boers and Britain. The Boer War lasted three years. The victory by Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener led to the annexation of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State in 1902. But peace was made on such honourable terms that no bitter feeling remained. All the damage done to Dutch farms during the war was made good by Great Britain; the Dutch and English languages were put on equal footing, and complete self-government was given to the South African Republic and the Orange Free State as members of the British Empire.

The Orange Free State was founded, in much the same way as the Transvaal, by Boer emigrants from Cape Colony. It joined the Transvaal in the Boer War, as you have just read. In 1909 the South African Acts, passed by the British Parliament, set up the Union of South Africa, which still further united the Dutch and British.

How completely the old enmity was forgotten was shown by the fact that Generals Botha and Smuts, who had held out to the last against the British armies in 1902, came to the help of Britain at its moment of greatest danger in 1914.

The Natives of South Africa. The so-called

‘natives’ of South Africa are Negroes belonging to the very numerous Bantu tribes—the Zulus, Swazis, Basutos, Bechuanas, etc. A common name for the Bantu Negroes is Kafirs. This name was given them by the Arabs; *Kafir* is from the Arabic word *Cafara*, meaning ‘Unbelievers.’ You have already read about the Arab slave-traders on the east coast.

It is not often realized that the Bantu Negroes, although they are so numerous, are not really the natives, and that the Dutch and British were in Cape Town before them. We do not know the exact date when the Bantus came sweeping down the east coast from the north and crossed the Zambezi river, but we do know that when the Dutch landed in South Africa in 1652, founded Cape Town, and began to trek farther inland, setting up farms and tilling the ground, the people they met and fought with were the little yellow Bushmen and the Hottentots.

As the white people moved north the blacks or Bantu tribes moved south, each wiping away the *real natives* of the land. It was in the eighteenth century that the whites and the Bantu Negroes met, and the great colour clash began which has still to-day to be settled in South Africa.

The Bantu tribes fought not only the Hottentots and the whites, but one another, for the Bantus are no more one nation than are the Europeans. Of all the Bantu tribes the Zulus were the most powerful. They were masters of the art of war, and caused bloodshed throughout the greater part of South Africa. Warfare, you must remember, was one of the *occupations* of the Zulus and other Bantu tribes. It was the white people, Dutch and British, who finally conquered the Zulus and brought the tribal wars—so destructive

to native life—to an end. As a result the Bantus have so increased in number that the regions allotted to them are already too small. The native problem in South Africa is a very real one, for there are only 2,000,000 white people against 8,000,000 coloured.

Many of the Bantus live in special parts of the



A KAFIR WOMAN ABOUT TO PREPARE MAIZE FOR THE
MIDDAY MEAL

Photo Exclusive News Agency

Union set aside for them. One of the biggest reserves is Transkei, a beautiful land between the Cape and Natal, where live some 1,000,000 natives; another reserve is Zululand, in lovely Natal. Here quaint beehive-shaped huts decorate almost every hillside. The kraal, or village, is generally in the form of a circle, the centre being occupied by the cattle, while the huts form the circumference. The highest position is kept for the chief's hut; not far from his hut is a large 'court' formed by a circle of wooden poles

covered with thatch. Here public affairs are discussed and quarrels settled. The men look after the cattle while the women till the fields and grow maize or mealies. A kind of porridge made from mealies is the chief food of the natives of South Africa.

Many of the natives, of course, live in the towns, work on farms and in the mines. The two races, the Negroes and the Europeans, are kept apart as far as possible to avoid race deterioration, but the separation is not easy.

Besides the natives in the reserves, and the natives working in towns, mines, farms, etc., there are some native states where chiefs rule. They are practically independent states, but under the protection of Great Britain. See if you can find these three States—Bechuanaland, to the north of the Union; Basutoland, surrounded by Natal, the Orange Free State, and Cape Province; and Swaziland, east of the Transvaal. In Basutoland there are about three white men to a thousand black, and in the reserves in the Union the black population increases so rapidly that it overflows into the towns of South Africa.

The Indians in South Africa. Another problem of the Union is the Indians.

In 1860 the British sugar-planters in Natal asked the Government if they could import labour from India because the Kafirs were less reliable and useful. Reluctantly the Government agreed, and the Indians began to come to Natal; they poured into it; they spread themselves over the land. Then the sugar-planters began to think, "If the Indians go on increasing at this rate, one day . . ." They stopped the Indians coming, but they could not turn out those already there. The Indians, the descendants of a civilized

nation, object to being classed with the natives of the kraals. This again is a problem. Ill-feeling against Britain has often arisen in India because the people there do not like the Indians in Africa being treated as though they belonged to the black race.



ROLLING COUNTRY IN NORTHERN ZULULAND, NEAR MAHASHINI,
WITH A ZULU KRAAL IN THE FOREGROUND

By courtesy of the State Information Office, Pretoria

Some of the Work and Wealth of South Africa.
The earth and the climate have given South Africans two good means of livelihood—agriculture and mining. The warm sunshine makes it possible to grow all kinds of tropical fruits — apricots, peaches, pineapples, bananas, lemons, oranges, and grapes. Vine-growing is quite important, and some of the grapes are made into South African wines. But perhaps the richest

part of South Africa is under the ground, where miners drill for gold and diamonds. There are other precious metals, such as silver, platinum, and copper. Sheep-breeding is an important business, and much of the world's wool comes from here. Maize is the Union's most important crop.

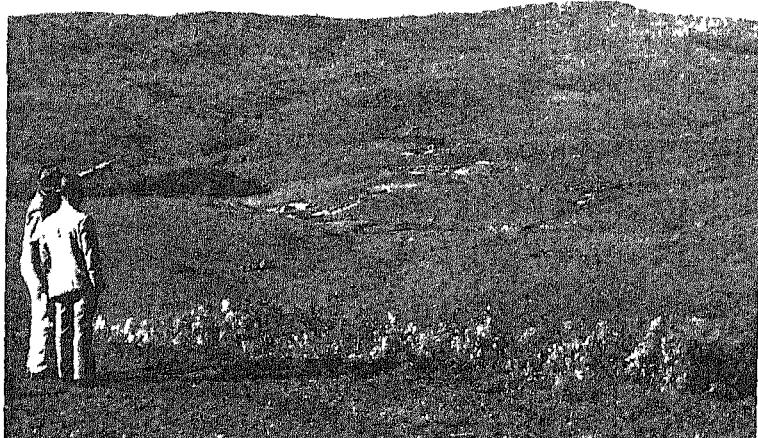
What perhaps everyone likes to see best in South Africa is the Kruger National Park, the most important wild-animal reserve in the world. It is the home of every species of African creature, from the elephant and the lion to the smaller antelope. You have seen some of the creatures of Africa when you read about East Africa.

South-west Africa. The large region of South-west Africa is held at present by the Union under a League of Nations Mandate, 1924. Up to 1914 it was a German colony. There are such large expanses of desert that the settlers live long distances apart. Mail is carried across the deserts by camel post. Stock-raising is its main industry, though crops are grown in the north and north-east. The territory, moreover, contains valuable minerals—for example, vanadium, for making alloys of steel, and diamonds. The Union of South Africa has a small possession of its own in South-west Africa. The little colony at Walvis Bay (*walvis* is Afrikaans for 'whale') is in the middle of the mandated territory.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

Southern Rhodesia is another example of British enterprise. Until quite late in the last century it was almost unknown to Europeans. It is the most sparsely populated part of Southern Africa, and the only part where big game is still plentiful outside the game

reserves. The chief Bantu tribes are the Matabele and the Mashona. There is no native problem as in the Union, because there is plenty of room for the black tribes to roam over the hills and live their own lives.

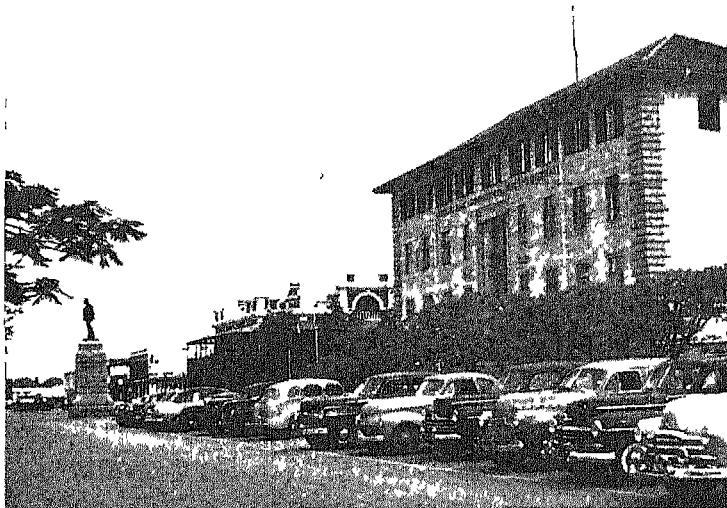


A GENERAL VIEW OF THE TOP OF THE INGANGA DOWNS,
IN THE NORTH-EASTERN PART OF SOUTHERN RHODESIA

By courtesy of the Public Relations Department of Southern Rhodesia

One of their chief occupations has, however, been stopped—*tribal warfare*. This needed great courage on the part of the British, as the Matabele are a famous warrior tribe like the Zulus. Most of the Matabele are cattle-owners. They possess about 1,000,000 head of cattle, and the Europeans another 1,000,000 head. It is a good cattle country because there is plenty of land—cheap land—good herbage, and not too hot a climate, because it is highland.

The history of Rhodesia dates back before the coming of the Bantus. We know this by the strange ruins lying about—ruins of temples, fortresses, towns, and gold-mines. The most wonderful traces of an old civilization are to be found at Great Zimbabwe,



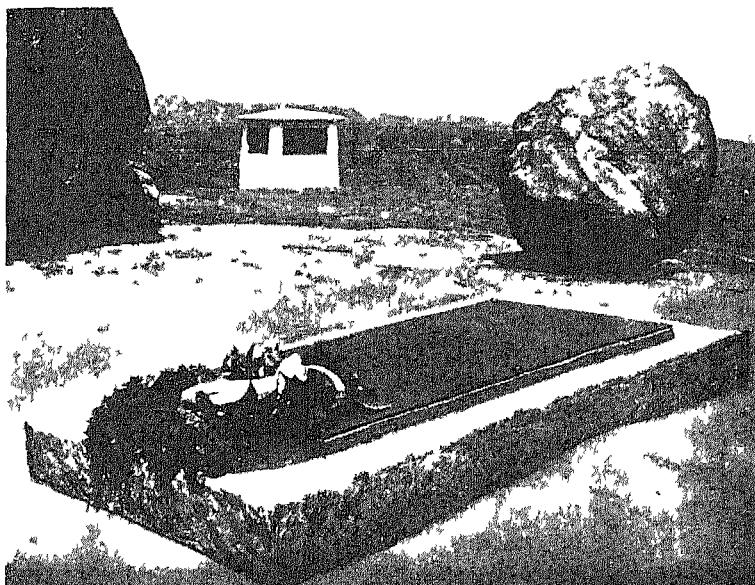
EIGHTH AVENUE, BULAWAYO, SOUTHERN RHODESIA,
SHOWING THE CECIL RHODES MEMORIAL

Photo Exclusive News Agency

in Mashonaland. What race of people once lived here we do not know. Rider Haggard in his books has written interesting and exciting romances about the Zimbabwe country. Try to get copies of *Allan Quatermain*, *King Solomon's Mines*, and *She* to read.

Through British enterprise much of this lonely land has been made very productive. Maize is the chief crop, and is exported in large quantities. Tobacco, winter wheat, ground-nuts, cotton, tea, coffee, and

citrus fruits are all grown for export. Southern Rhodesia is also very rich in minerals—gold, coal, asbestos, chrome, mica, iron ore. There are great steel-works at Que Que, which plan to produce eighty



RHODESIA, "THE WORLD'S VIEW": CECIL RHODES'S GRAVE
IN THE MATOPOS

Photo Exclusive News Agency

tons of steel a day. Many of the natives work in the mines and towns, and others have learnt to farm their own land.

There are some fine towns with modern buildings—Salisbury, the capital; Bulawayo, a great railway centre; and Umtali. Umtali is situated in the lovely highlands of the east. It is a most picturesque town. Round it are forests, glens, and waterfalls. The farms in

the district grow a remarkable profusion of fruits, ranging from tropical fruits like the papaws in the valleys to strawberries, plums, and apples among the mountains.

Rhodesia has a great future before it with its cattle lands, farm lands, and mines. It is only sixty years old as it is, but it has done wonders in those years. One day you must read about Cecil Rhodes, who did much to make possible the prosperous Southern Rhodesia we know to-day. His burial-place on the top of the Matopo Hills bears the name "World's View," given it by Rhodes himself. From it can be seen a panorama of a great, lovely world. Giant spherical boulders and jagged granite cliffs lend a touch of weirdness to the scene. It looks as if some giants at play had broken the hills and left the pieces lying about it. It is an inspiration to those who want great deeds to do and difficulties to conquer.

And now the tale of the British Empire or British Commonwealth of Nations is told. What it is called does not matter a great deal. It is what it is, and stands for, that is important—it stands for freedom and justice.

To-day the dominions are developing into separate nations, and the British Commonwealth is becoming an English-speaking League of Nations, officially united by the Crown. It is no longer the British Parliament but the Crown that links the Commonwealth in symbolism, in loyalty, and in law.

A COMPLETE LIST OF THE LANDS OF THE COMMONWEALTH

1. TERRITORIES FOR WHICH THE COLONIAL OFFICE HAS RESPONSIBILITY IN VARYING DEGREES

Colonies (properly called Crown Colonies) are overseas territories which have been annexed to the British Crown. The British Government is responsible for their external and internal affairs and for their defence, and their peoples are British subjects.

Protectorates are governed in the same way as Colonies, but have not been annexed. The practical differences between Colonies and Protectorates are now very small. The peoples of Protectorates are not British subjects, but British protected persons.

Protected States are countries which, while retaining their own sovereignty, have entered into treaties giving the British Government certain rights and responsibilities in them.

Trust Territories are those territories, former colonies of nations defeated in war, whose administration is entrusted to Britain by the United Nations Trusteeship Council. Trusteeship replaced the mandates of the League of Nations when the League gave place to the United Nations. Trust Territories are governed in the same way as Colonies, but a detailed report on them is sent to the United Nations each year.

A Condominium is the joint responsibility of two countries. The New Hebrides, for example, is governed jointly by Britain and France. Notice, as you read the list, some territories are composed partly of a Colony and partly of a Protectorate.

Aden, including Socotra, Kuria Muria Islands, Kamaran Island (*Colony and Protectorate*)

Bahamas (*Colony*)

Barbados (*Colony*)

Bermuda (*Colony*)

British Guiana (*Colony*)

British Honduras (*Colony*)

British Solomon Islands (*Protectorate*)

Brunei (*Protected State*)
Cyprus (*Colony*)
Falkland Islands and Dependencies (*Colony*)
Fiji (*Colony*)
Gambia (*Colony and Protectorate*)
Gibraltar (*Colony*)
Gilbert and Ellice Islands (*Colony*)
Gold Coast, including Gold Coast (*Colony*), Ashanti and Northern Territories (*Protectorates*), with Togoland (*a Trusteeship Territory*).
Hong Kong (*Colony*)
Jamaica and her Dependencies: Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands (*Colony*)
Kenya (*Colony and Protectorate*)
Leeward Islands (*Colony*)
Federation of Malaya (*9 Protected States and 2 Settlements*)
Malta (*Colony with Self-government*)
Mauritius (*Colony*)
Nigeria (*Colony and Protectorate*); the Cameroons, a narrow strip along the eastern edge of Nigeria, is a *Trusteeship Territory*, but included in Nigeria
New Hebrides (*Anglo-French Condominium*)
North Borneo (*Colony*)
Northern Rhodesia (*Protectorate*)
Nyasaland (*Protectorate*)
Pitcairn Island (*Colony*)
St Helena, including Ascension and Tristan da Cunha (*Colony*)
Sarawak (*Colony*)
Seychelles (*Colony*)
Sierra Leone (*Colony and Protectorate*)
Singapore, including Christmas and Cocos Islands (*Colony*)
Somaliland (*Protectorate*)
Tanganyika (*Trusteeship Territory*)
Tonga (*Protected State*)
Trinidad and Tobago (*Colony*)
Uganda (*Protectorate*)
Windwards Islands: Grenada (*Colony*), Dominica (*Colony*), St Lucia (*Colony*), St Vincent (*Colony*)

2. THREE HIGH COMMISSION TERRITORIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Basutoland, Bechuanaland, and Swaziland. Although these are staffed to some extent by the Colonial Service, they are dealt with in the Commonwealth Relations Office. They all have their own rules and forms of government, but are helped by a High Commissioner.

3. MEMBER STATES OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan, Union of South Africa. Southern Rhodesia is regarded as a member state, but in reality it is not a full member yet.

Some of the member states have colonies of their own. For example, Australia has the Trusteeship Territory of North-east New Guinea, Papua, and surrounding islands. New Zealand has some islands: Cook Islands, Western Samoa, etc. The Union of South Africa has the Trusteeship Territory of South-west Africa and a little colony at Walvis Bay.

The United Kingdom (Great Britain and Northern Ireland) is of course a member state of the British Commonwealth. Even this does not complete the picture. The United Kingdom Government through the Foreign Office is responsible for administering the two ex-Italian territories of Libya and Eritrea. The United Kingdom Government also has a responsibility for the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

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